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Canada

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TO
THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO
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BRITISH EMPIRE READERS

ENGLISCHE REALIEN-LESEBÜCHER

FÜR

OBERE KLASSEN HÖHERER LEHRANSTALTEN,
STUDIERENDE DER UNIVERSITÄTEN, TECHNISCHEN
UND HANDELSHOCHSCHULEN SOWIE DEN
PRIVATGEBRAUCH

VON

LOUIS HAMILTON, F.R.C.I.
DOZENT AM ORIENTALISCHEN SEMINAR DER KGL.
UNIVERSITÄT ZU BERLIN

BAND I

FRANKFURT AM MAIN
MORITZ DIESTERWEG
1913.

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CANADA

BY

LOUIS HAMILTON, F.R.C.I.
READER IN THE ORIENTAL COLLEGE,
BERLIN UNIVERSITY

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AUTHOR'S NOTE.

THIS book is the first of a series of Readers dealing with the British Empire *(British Empire Readers)*. It will be followed by volumes on *Australasia, India,* the *Union of South Africa,* the *Crown Colonies,* etc., with a concluding work on *Great Britain,* and a supplementary reader devoted to the *United States,* all of which will be published by Herrn Moritz Diesterweg of Frankfort-on-the-Main.

There are now over 15,000,000 white inhabitants in the British Empire outside of the mother country. This number is growing by about half a million yearly, and the ratio of increase is rapidly augmenting.

The British over-seas dominions and colonies must therefore no longer be regarded by foreign students as negligible quantities, and in their studies of things English they would do well not to limit their attention to Great Britain, but extent it to Greater Britain. It seems superfluous to observe that the United States are of as great importance in this respect as the British Empire.

The numbers in the text refer to authors quoted or otherwise utilised. Their names and works will be found in the Appendix (pp. 129—131). Copious use has been made of various provincial government publications which have often been quoted verbatim at length.

My thanks are due to my friend Mr. Douglas Carpenter, Berlin, for his valuable assistance in revising the proofs.

L. H.

CONTENTS.

Page

Author's Note V

Introductory Remarks (Reasons for the Tardy Development of Canada) 1

Geographical Sketch 13

The Provinces 35

I. Nova Scotia 35

II. Prince Edward Island 42

III. New Brunswick 47

IV. Quebec 51

V. Ontario 57

VI. The Prairie Provinces 62

VII. British Columbia 90

History 97

Appendix 129

Annotations 132

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

REASONS FOR THE TARDY DEVELOPMENT OF CANADA.

"GIVE a dog a bad name, and hang him" runs an old English proverb. Canada for many years felt the truth of this saw.

Up to but a short time ago, and even in some countries to-day, the name of Canada has been associated with ice, snow, and Indians. In Germany it calls up a vision of *Hummer, Lachs und frischem Bärenschinken.* This is due to the worthy Godfried Seume from whose poem *"Der Wilde"* generations of German school boys have drawn their knowledge, or rather conception of Canada. In fact, Canada seems to have suffered considerably from the "Singer's Curse". Thus in France *La Nouvelle France* was stigmatised by Voltaire's *quelques arpents de neige*[1], a remark which he let fall in *"Candide"*, and which perhaps did much to console the French for the loss of that colony. In England, no less a person than Rudyard Kipling christened the Dominion as *"Our Lady of the Snows"*, a term, poetical as it is, which was not taken in very good part by Canadians. Still he sugared the pill by adding: "a daughter in her mother's house, but mistress in her own", a sentence which may be said to contain the great axiom of modern British Imperialism. An etymological legend has been related

according to which the name Canada is derived from the Spanish, and means 'here is nothing'. "It is said that the Spaniards had visited the country before the French did; but finding it very barren, and without gold, the grand object of their pursuit, they frequently, on the eve of their departure, mentioned in the presence of the Indians, *aca nada*, signifying, here is nothing. When the French visited the country, the Indians, in hopes of getting rid of them, and supposing them Spaniards, repeated frequently *aca nada*, which the French not understanding, thought, might be the name of the country; hence they called it Canada" [2]. As a matter of fact however this pretty little piece of would-be etymology is incorrect. The word Canada is derived from an Indian expression signifying village, or rather: group of huts [3].

A few words will not be amiss here about the most important reasons for Canada's late development and appearance amongst the ranks of modern nations. We shall then be in a better position to appreciate the causes of her — if one may use such a term — erstwhile bad reputation.

Canada was thrown in the shade from the very start by the United States. But to cite this fact at the outset is arguing *a posteriori* instead of *a priori*. As Canada, and the country which is now the United States were discovered much about the same time, they must have had much about the same chances. But as will be seen below, such a supposition is by no means justified.

It is quite clear, as Sir C. P. Lucas [4] has ably pointed out that Spain and Portugal were destined to be the discoverers of America. This was owing to their favourable geographical position by which their countries project far out into the Atlantic Ocean. Owing to the fact that in the time of Columbus the English were not a sea-faring

folk the Spaniards and Portuguese were also not troubled by English maritime competition. Other points in their favour were that the prevailing winds favoured a course to the American continent which carried sailing vessels in a southwesterly direction, and bore them to the West Indies. It will further be remembered that the Spanish and Portuguese where on the look out for a way to China and India, and it is clear that their vessels would take a course towards warm climes and tropical vegetation. The very name of the natives of America remind us of the fact that India was the goal of Columbus and his successors.

All conditions favourable to settlement were found in that part of America which was first discovered: gold, pearls, spices, and natives who were easily subjugated. Thus the central part of North America — with the exception of Florida — was settled and organized a century before the northern part of the continent.

"Adventurers to North America found greater cold than they had left behind them in the same latitudes in Europe, desolate shores, little trace of precious metal, and natives whom it was dangerous to offend, and impossible to enslave. In the far north the cod fisheries were discovered, and furs were to be obtained by barter from the North American Indians; but such trade was not likely to lead to permanent settlement in the near future." [5]

But the above only explains why Central America and the southern parts of the North American continent were settled, and the northern part not. It does not offer the explanation as to why the United States were settled before Canada, or rather colonized immensurably quicker. In the beginning of the seventeenth century we find settlements in Jamestown, on the Hudson, and on the St. Law-

rence, settlements that had but a precarious hold at first, but yet indicated a beginning. Francis Parkman — who has been called the prose Homer of Canada — sums up the situation in the following soul-stirring words: "On the banks of James River was a nest of woe-begone Englishmen, a handful of Dutch fur-traders at the Hudson, and a few shivering Frenchmen among the snowdrifts of Acadia; while deep within the wild monotony of desolation, on the icy verge of the great northern river, the hand of Champlain upheld the fleur-de-lis on the rock of Quebec . . . These were the advance guard, the forlorn hope of civilization, messengers of promise to a desert continent." [6]

Just as the Spanish colonies in America suffered, and finally were lost through over-legislation and tutelage on the part of the mother-country, and were thus dedicated at the outset to a speedy ruin, so too was France destined to lose *La Nouvelle France* in the north for the self-same reasons which made that colony incapable of competing with Anglo-American enterprise and competition. The country remained at a stand-still owing to the absurd patriarchal system of the French government which ruined her transmaritime possession by the granting of trade monopolies, and prohibiting the immigration, not only of non-French Protestants, but of her best elements the Huguenots, who would doubtlessly, had they been allowed to settle in Canada, have done for that country what the Puritans did for the New England States further south. If it had not been for this shortsighted policy, Canada might to-day have been a great French trans-Atlantic empire. This is also borne out by another eminent American historian whose explanation of Spanish failure may be applied equally well to France: "Unlike the settlements on the comparatively sterile shores of North

America, which were permitted to devise laws accomodated to their necessities (the author is alluding to the English colonies), and to gather strength in the habitual exercise of political functions, the Spanish colonies were from the very first checked and controlled by the overlegislation of the parent country." [7]

The different effect of Protestantism and Catholicism on the North American Continent has been brilliantly described by Parkman. "The necessity, or the strong desire, of escaping from persecution had given the impulse to Puritan colonization; while on the other hand, none but good Catholics, the favoured class of France, were tolerated in Canada. These had no motive for exchanging the comforts of home, and the smiles of fortune for a starving wilderness and the scalping-knives of the Iroquois. The Huguenots would have emigrated in swarms; but they were rigidly forbidden. The zeal of propagandism and the fur-trade were . . . the vital forces of New France. Of her feeble population, the best part were bound to perpetual chastity; while the fur-traders and those in their service rarely brought their wives to the wilderness. The fur-trader, moreover, is always the worst of colonists; since the increase of population, by diminishing the number of the fur-bearing animals, is adverse to his interest." [8]

The English colonies however became the Mecca of all Englishman who suffered from religious and political persecution in their own country, as well as of numerous emigrants who left the European continent for the same reason. The new colonies thrived, the population grew by the continual influx of immigrants; whereas close over the frontier Canada was on the verge of starvation and bankruptcy, and was less a colony than a colonial settlement in North America, the chief occupation of whose

inhabitants was fur-hunting, proselytizing the natives, and inciting them to attack their southern neighbours the Dutch and English who had settled on the border, and thus prevent them from advancing northwards. The chief population consisted chiefly of priests, nuns, and Jesuits, officials, soldiers, and fur-traders known as *coureurs-de-bois*. "It was the nature of French colonization to seize upon detached strategic points, and hold them by the bayonet, forming no agricultural basis, but attracting the Indians by trade, and holding them by conversion. A musket and a rosary, and a pack of beaver skins may serve to represent it, and in fact it consisted of little else." [9] The difference between this method described so picturesquely above, and the English system, has been felicitously and humorously shown by another writer: "Instead of Spanish crosses and Gregorian tones, we have Drake's brass plates and silver coins and his bumpers of rum-punch, diluted with a tear or two over the idolatry of the Queen's new subjects." [10]

When Canada passed into British hands in 1763 she was practically bankrupt, and only had a population of about 75,000 souls, and a bad reputation. On the other hand when the United States finally broke away from England in 1783, they had a population of nearly 3,000,000. That means a superiority over Canada which was bound to throw her in the shade and leave her a long way behind. Still, with the conquest of New France by England a turn for the better — if not at first very pronounced — set in in that country. England introduced Protestantism, freedom of thought, and regulated conditions, without however treating her new Catholic subjects with a lack of tolerance. [11]

The great emigration tide to the United States does not belong within the scope of this book; that it should

have flowed towards that country in preference, and to the disadvantage of Canada is however evident from the remarks made above.

If Canada had not yet been placed in the shade enough, the Hudson's Bay Company did its utmost that she should be. This great fur-trading company had systematically spread unfavourable reports about the country, particularly in the fifties of the 19th century. They reported that the country was cold, sterile, and only fit for fur-trading. It was "always careful to foster the idea that their territory was chiefly wilderness, and discountenanced the reports of its fertility and fitness for colonization which were from time to time brought to the ears of the English government."[12] This was clever commercial policy which one can hardly blame the "Great Company" for, especially if we consider the many services she has done the country, but it was not exactly calculated to enhance Canada's reputation over here in Europe. And it is not quite historically fair to blame the Hudson's Bay Company alone for spreading such exaggerated reports about Canadian climate and fertility. This was first done under the English régime by no less a person than the excellent Governor Carleton who expressed much about the same opinion in a letter written in 1760 to Lord Selbourne in which he reported on the condition of the province, and "considered that emigration from Europe would be turned to the more 'cheerful climate and more fruitful soil of the southern provinces in preference to the long inhospitable winters of Canada'. It was the commencement of the misrepresentation by political writers of the healthy, pleasant, invigorating winter of Canada . . . a delusion which took three quarters of a century to destroy."[13]

Fur-trading and settlement are incompatible. The

Hudson's Bay Company has now taken to colonization policy amongst her many enterprises, and carries on this branch of business with as much energy and success as fur-trading.

It was only in the middle of the last century that Canada began to show pronounced signs of awakening after she had lain asleep since her transference to the British crown by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. Extension of steam-ship lines to the mother country, and above all Confederation in 1867, and the opening of the Canadian Pacific Railway in its full length in 1885 were important factors in accentuating Canada's national and economic life. In addition to this a further impetus was given by a commencing scarcity of the best western lands in the United States owing to extensive settlement, and a monopolising policy of land speculating companies, the increase of American population and industrialism, and sharper restrictive immigration regulations in the States, and further the spread of Imperialism in Greater Britain, are all factors following rapidly one upon the heels of the other which contributed to gain Canada her due position amongst nations, and allow of her enjoying her inheritance. As for the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway, it would hardly be possible to exaggerate the importance of that event on the consolidation of the Dominion, and its share in her awakening. "The result of the building of the line has often been described, but can hardly be exaggerated; it converted the country from a series of separate communities, divided by wide distances and by wider spaces of time, closely bound to and dependent on the States lying immediately south of them, into a homogeneous country from Atlantic to Pacific. Had reciprocity continued, and had the railway never been built, Canada's trade would have followed

its natural direction of north to south; the building of the line forced it east and west, and made it follow a national instead of a geographical channel. The results to Canada and the Empire are very great: without it the middle west would have become a commercial dependency of Buffalo, Chicago, and Minneapolis; and we can believe that the position would have been insecure without going to the length of assuming that political union would have followed commercial connection." [14] As a matter of fact later day experience has shown that doubtlessly political union would have followed commercial connection with the United States. At least this is the opinion of no less a person than ex-president Taft when he wrote in January 1911 to Mr. Roosevelt: "Reciprocity with Canada might have at first a tendency to reduce the cost of food products somewhat. In the mean time the amount of Canadian products which we would take would produce a current of business between Western Canada and the United States that would make Canada only an adjunct to the States and would transfer all their important business to Chicago and New York with their bank credits and everything else and increase greatly the demand in Canada for our manufactures. I see in this an argument against Reciprocity made in Canada and I think it a good one." [15]

A student of Canadian affairs like George R. Parkin, himself a Canadian, attributes Canada's inferiority on the North American continent less to climatic than to economic and inner-political reasons. "Provincial narrowness of view" he writes, "hostile interprovincial tariffs, lack of easy communication between the old Canadian provinces and those of the Atlantic seaboard, an absence of that national spirit which springs from the sense of united strength and a great future, were the reasons which naturally suggested themselves to every thinking man when he began

to weigh the reasons of Canadian inferiority on the American continent. The outside world inclined to attribute the situation to that severity of climate which appeared to terrify the emigrants who poured in thousands into regions further south, or to some lack of natural resources. But those who were better acquainted with the facts and knew the country's wealth of forest, fisheries, mine, and productive soil, knew also that the cause of comparative failure in the rate of progress must be sought in other circumstances, and they seemed to find it in the dispersion of force inseparable from the existing political conditions." [16]

Things have changed to-day, and so have opinions. One is even inclined to go to extremes of optimism. As much as Canada once stood in the background, does she now begin to throw her gigantic shadow over England: the Mother-country's former neglect has grown into an almost grovelling and tail-wagging attitude of politeness and deference. And this *volte face* has partly been brought about by an ever-increasing number of voices in Canada crying undisguisedly for independence. They are not satisfied with practical independence, they clamour for independence in theory too. In reality the Dominion could hardly have greater independence in conjunction with greater security than she enjoys to-day under the British flag. The next step to be expected is either a declaration of complete independence, or a still greater strengthening of the ties that join her, to the Empire, by which Canada would lose on the one hand, and gain on the other. She would win more influence on imperial foreign and tariff policy, she would lose the freedom of action which she at present *de facto* enjoys and exercises. I need only remind readers of the expulsion of East Indians from British Columbia, and the independent

commercial law which was nearly passed in 1911, and which would have linked the Dominion almost inseparably with the United States, and might have made her a 'back-yard' of her powerful neighbour; a law which certainly would have struck a fatal blow at British import trade. Should the Empire really become an accomplished fact — she only exists to-day on paper, and in the brains of enthusiastic Imperialists — then her component parts would soon realize that imperial interests will make claims on them to sacrifice some of their present independence. Canada would do well to remember that the moment she cuts herself adrift from the 'Old Country' — no one can prevent her — and takes the status of an independent nation, she becomes the legitimate prey of the first-comer who is strong enough to attack her, and to a certain extend proscribed.

The following words are characteristic for Canadians who are suffering from a certain megalomania brought on perhaps by excessive reading or compiling of immigration pampflets. — "Let our independence, then, be acknowledged. Let us learn to regard ourselves as a nation. Let us claim the place, and the rank, and the respect to which we are entitled. Let us be no longer a 'Colony' even in name (the writer of those lines knows very well she is not "a colony even in name"), nor yet one of the 'Dominions beyond the Seas'. We are I beg to say on this side of the seas. We have the most magnificent and richly endowed country on the face of the globe. We have eight millions of the sanest, the strongest, and the most intelligent people in the world. We are acquiring a just pride in our material position and in our unprecedented progress. And, if we shall only rise to the height of our national manhood, we shall, I most firmly believe, very soon be a homogeneous and united

people, well able to hold our own, whether in the peaceful pursuits of industry and commerce, or in the direct engagements of most strenuous war; and whether in defence of our land, or of the land from which most of us have sprung, and which yet retains (may it always retain) our sympathies, and our affections." [17]

Proud words, those. But perhaps not unwarranted. Northern peoples do possess physical and mental advantages over those of warmer climes. They are a hardy energetic race, the very climatic rigours they have to contend with and make headway against steel the brain and body, and weed out puny weak elements. The dividing line between Canada and the United States leaves Canada completely in northern climatic conditions and all its influence, and seems to destine her population as the Scandinavian and Scotch parallel elements on the North American continent. "The northern peoples have always been the truest, the wisest, and deepest thinkers; and their imagination has always been the most beautiful and the sanest, because the nearest to nature. They have ever been the strongest in personality and the self-rulers of the world. Northern Europe, Northern Britain, Northern Ireland, are all historical evidence of this fact. Even in the United States this is so far true; and Canada cannot escape this great law of life and nature." [18]

GEOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.

EVERYTHING in Canadian geography is on a huge scale. Her great extent of territory stretching 3,500 miles from the shores of the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, from Point Pelée (42° N., 82° W.) in Ontario — her southernmost outpost — to far up into the Arctic to Grant Land on the 82nd degree of North Latitude; her vast streams and lakes, her boundless prairies, giant mountain ranges, endless forests and lone and trackless barrens. Nature has been generous to her. Stored in her ample bosom are all the metals known to modern industry, from her fertile soil spring forth the teeming flora of the temperate zone, in her rivers and inland seas, and along her coasts swarm fabulous shoals of fish. She has climates that in summer compete with India, and in winter with the poles. Containing as she does then all phenomena and conditions of the temperate and frigid zones Canada can not be generalized upon either in her climate, fauna, flora or economic conditions.

The exact size of Canada is not known owing to the fact that great tracts have never been explored, still less surveyed, and the map shows many a blank space which can only be filled up after the lapse of a great many years, and repetition of such deeds of exploration and valour as were carried out by men like Verendrye, Mackenzie, Franklin, Hearne and others who have made

their names immortal in Canadian annals. The conditions under which future explorers will have to labour will be as fraught with hardships and danger as those of the earliest pioneers; for the untrodden areas all lie either far north, or in the almost inaccesible districts of Labrador. Here the *voyageur's* canoe in summer, and the dog-sleighs and snowshoes in winter will be the only means of advance, and the *tripe de roche* the last resource of the starving explorer as in the days of yore. If the would-be furtherer of Canadian geographical knowledge wishes to know how he will fare, what his experiences will be, he need but turn to Franklin's *"Narrative of a Journey to the Shores of the Polar Sea"*. Time has left little or no mark of progress in the far north territories of the great Dominion, and the explorer who ventures into her untrodden lands will be as much in the past, and as alone with his God as his predecessors in the 17th and 18th centuries. His gun will be a breech-loader, his scientific instruments more perfect. For the rest he will have no difficulty in imagining himself a re-incarnated Hearne.

The area of Canada is given in the census tables of 1911 as 3,729,665 square miles of land and water, the latter being generally reckoned at 125,755 which is a computation of the lake areas.[19] The above figures do not include the Arctic islands and peninsulas which are known as Franklin and are perfectly uninhabitable, 'ungetatable', and quite outside the range of practicable consideration. Canada is therefore about 17 times as large as Germany, and — a fact which is not generally known — somewhat larger than the United States, which has an area of 3,622,933 square miles including Alaska and Hawaii. Many will be tempted to remark that the fact of Canada being larger than her southern neighbour

does not prove that she contains the same amount of land which could be settled. That is to say that Canada could never compete in population with the States. This is quite true, but the settleable area of the two countries is much more approximate than is generally supposed. If we subtract from the United States Alaska, her arid deserts in the west, and her plus of mountains which extend much further east than in Canada, we shall find that the difference is much less than it appears to be.

"It must be borne in mind that a large proportion of the centre and west centre of the United States is desert land, only fit for agriculture after the supply of irrigation, which in immense tracts of territory, is impossible at paying prices." [20] One might add the unexplicable factor that the tundra line in Canada is gradually receding northwards, and that as a result of this people are settling in districts they actually could not — or would not — have ventured into but a generation ago. To make any attempt however to calculate the actual difference of settleable area between the two countries is on the face of our present knowledge impossible, and would be only guess work. Suffice it to say that according to many computations Canada could comfortably hold a population of 200,000,000 without exhausting her possibilities. At the present moment with a population of 7,206,643 [21] there are only 1.93 souls per square mile. For practical purposes however such fractional figures are not important. It will be enough if we remember that Canada has an area of roughly three million seven hundred thousand square miles, and a population rapidly approaching eight millions. If one were to turn the Dominion over the Atlantic, using Newfoundland as a hinge, Vancouver island would be at St. Petersburg. Canada has a coast line of 5,000 miles on the Atlantic coast and 7,000 miles on the Pacific coast.

This does not include any portion of Hudson Strait, Hudson Bay, or the northern waters within the Arctic regions: nor is the whole of the St. Lawrence route included in the sea-coast of the country. On the Atlantic side, the sea shores of Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island comprise the sea coast line of eastern Canada; on the Pacific, the sea shore of British Columbia with the islands of Vancouver and the Queen Charlotte group.

The strip of the Quebec coast on the Atlantic known as Labrador, is under Newfoundland administration, and therefore does not belong to Canada politically, indeed, but for the narrow strait of Belle Isle, only 12 miles in width, the island would be a part of Labrador, from which its separation may be regarded as accidental. The reason of this lies in the fact that this cold and iron-bound coast is more easily administered from Newfoundland than from Ottawa, or even Quebec, owing to the fact of the great intervening distance, and consequent difficulty of access. As soon however as a railway is built from Quebec — a project that has often been mooted — Newfoundland will have to renounce her guardianship of her somewhat overgrown ward. As the boundary line beween Labrador and Quebec is still undefined, the exact area of the strip is not known, but is generally computed at 7,000 square miles. It has a length of about eight hundred miles. The small cluster of islands off the south coast of Newfoundland known as St. Pierre and Miquelon are the last remnants of *La Nouvelle France.*

The coast-line of Canada is most intricate, and irregular; and it is impossible to state its exact length, as vast distances in the north, and along the Hudson Bay shore have not been surveyed. Especially the Pacific

coast is deeply indented, and alone is computed to have a length of 7,000 miles; it is rich in fjords, some of which run inland to a distance of 40 to 50 and even 60 miles. In general appearance it resembles the Norwegian coast; and its fjords are often so deep that anchorage cannot be found. They are sheltered by mountains from 7,000 to 8,000 feet high. The whole of the Pacific coast is flanked by innumerable islands, thus forming a line of channels of calm water protected from the ocean swell for a distance of 800 miles, that is for the whole length of the British Columbia coast to far beyond the Alaska frontier. The Labrador coast on the Atlantic is in so far similar that it is also deeply indented, and also partly fringed with islands, though the indentures seldom run so far inland, and the islands are much smaller and less numerous; still they too form an inside sheltered channel which is most necessary along those wave beaten shores. The Labrador seaboard also rises to considerable heights, but seldom to more than 3,000 feet. Whereas the Columbian coast is wooded and inviting, that of Labrador is naked and repulsing. From the Strait of Belle Isle on the south-eastern point of Labrador, to the north coast of Nova Scotia, or properly speaking to Cape Breton Island, the Gulf of St. Lawrence cuts an irregular gap into the Quebec coast, triangular in form, with the St. Lawrence River at its apex, having Quebec as its first important harbour, 846 miles from the open sea, and circa 300 miles from were the St. Lawrence River runs into the Gulf at our apex. The island of Newfoundland is at its base; this gap is about 400 miles wide, and almost closed by Newfoundland which runs within 10 miles of the Labrador coast at the Strait of Belle Isle, and within 60 of Cape North on Cape Breton Island, at the Cabot Strait which is broken by St. Paul Island 20 miles off

the shores of Cape Breton Island. The Province of Quebec forms the northern, and part of the southern shore of this huge water triangle. Nova Scotia, which is 268 miles long and lying north-east by south-west in the Atlantic, flanks New Brunswick, from which it is very nearly divided by the Bay of Fundy, the intervening breadth of the isthmus connecting the two provinces in the north being but $11^1/_2$ miles wide. All along the eastern shore are numerous first-class harbours, chief of which is Halifax 14 miles long with an average width of 1 mile, and nowhere less than 6 fathoms deep, but in most places 36 fathoms.

There is a certain similarity between the coast of the Maritime Provinces (*i. e.* New Brunswick and Nova Scotia) and the British Columbian coast, especially if we consider Nova Scotia as the counterpart of Vancouver, and indeed they are about the same size. Both are rocky and densely wooded with coniferae, both have deep running and safe harbours, both are rich in coal and iron. Their climate is similar in its mildness, though Nova Scotia is the colder of the two.

If the Gulf and River St. Lawrence are the most important feature on the Canadian coasts, the Hudson Bay is the most remarkable, and certainly destined to a great rôle in the near future.

This vast inland sea seems on a cursory glance at the map to nearly cut Canada in two, and indeed James Bay, its most south-easterly part, runs down to within 300 miles of Lake Superior. Parenthetically I may remark here that the 80th degree west longitude — which passes through James Bay — marks roughly the division between old and new Canada. From north to south Hudson Bay (including James Bay) is 1,300 miles, and from east to west 1,000, it covers an area of not less

than 500,000 square miles, and is the biggest inland sea after the Mediterranean. Most of the eastern shore is low, whereas the western is bold and rocky. Practically the only good harbours on the Bay are Churchill Harbour and Port Nelson on the middle of the western shore. From one of these ports a new line of communication between England and the western prairies is shortly to be inaugurated.

The most remarkable feature about Canada is the magnitude of her waterways. "The history of Canada is explicable only by its waterways." The lakes of the St. Lawrence system alone contain half the fresh water of the world. No country has such an abundance of water, few such wonderful harbours.

It is possible to travel all over Canada in a canoe, with the exception of short portages here and there. From the St. Lawrence on the Atlantic, to the Mackenzie on the Arctic is almost an unbroken chain of water, forming a vast semi-circle of over 3,500 miles in length. In the olden days the rivers and lakes were the only highways employed, and along their course the explorer's canoe made its way into the heart of the continent. In 1681/2 La Salle the French explorer, actually went all the way by water with but the break of a short portage at the southern end of Lake Michigan, from Montreal to the mouth of the Mississippi. The Fox River which flows into Green Bay on the north-western shore of Lake Michigan, after passing through Lake Winnebago, if followed up its course, runs to within one mile and a half of the Wisconsin river, which is a tributary of the Mississippi. Another almost unbroken water communication to the Gulf of Mexico was found by going down Lake Michigan to where Chicago now stands, and then crossing the portage of a few miles to one of the

branches of the Illinois. Amongst the great streams the St. Lawrence is not only that of the greatest importance, but it forms with its lake system one of the chief four geographical divisions of the country. "The present Dominion of Canada is not merely a political federation; it is a federation of regions which are geographically separate from each other. There is the eastern seabord, the old Acadia; there is the basin of the St. Lawrence; there are the plains of the North-West and the regions of the Hudson Bay; and there are the lands of the Pacific coast. Only one of these four regions, the basin of the St. Lawrence, was the main scene of early Canadian history." [22]

What the Nile is to Egypt, the Rhine to Germany, the Ganges to India, the St. Lawrence is, and far more, to Canada. The whole of early Canadian history, till long after the English conquest is inseparably connected with this mighty river, and its adjoining waterways. "Along the St. Lawrence and its tributaries the drama of Canadian history was played." [23] It has been the scene of innumerable striking incidents, of human woe, of human glory. It has seen naval battles on its now so peaceful waters; it has seen Cartier land, and Wolfe and Montcalme dying on its banks. Along its broad bosom the hostile Iroquois canoe once sped with murderous savage bent upon scalping and butchering the peaceful settlers on its banks.

The St. Lawrence may be said to be the most vital artery of Canada. And he who holds it, holds the key to the country.

The total length of this River from the lakes to the opening into the gulf is over 600 miles. At Point de Mons (north latitude 49° 15′, west longitude 67°) where the St. Lawrence opens into the sea, it is 35 miles wide,

at Montreal 420 miles up the river, it is $1^{3}/_{4}$ miles wide. In fact, it is never less than a mile wide along its whole course. At Three Rivers, about half way between Montreal and Quebec, is the limit of the tideway. The distance from Montreal to Kingston, where the St. Lawrence leaves Lake Ontario, is 185 miles. The total length of lake and river from the western end of Lake Superior to the Gulf of St. Lawrence is over 2,000 miles, and navigable along the whole distance. This is made possible chiefly by the Sault Ste. Marie Canals between Lakes Superior and Huron, and the Welland Canal between Lakes Ontario and Erie avoiding the Niagara Falls.

To make the communication from the Atlantic Ocean to the head of Lake Superior complete there are 6 other smaller canals with about 60 locks overcoming a total rise of 600 feet.

It is possible two thousand miles inland, almost in the centre of North America, to suffer shipwreck and be tossed about by the waves of the great lakes out of sight of land; to be sea-sick and pass days on the water with all the pleasures, advantages, unpleasantnesses and disadvantages of ocean travelling, in the heart of a continent. The St. Lawrence rises in the west of Lake Superior, and has its source in the St. Louis River which flows into the great lake. The greatest length of Lake Superior is 354 miles, its breadth 162 miles, and its total area 31,800 square miles, with a mean depth of 688 feet; its greatest depth is 1,008 feet. It lies 602 feet above the surface of the ocean. The northern shores of Lake Superior are rugged, lofty and rocky, and the surrounding country is unfit for agricultural purposes, whereas it is rich in minerals. The southern shores which are in United States territory do not present quite the same appearance, they are not so high; and grotesque sandstone cliffs alter-

nating with sandy beaches are a peculiar characteristic. Lake Superior is joined to Lake Huron by the Sault Ste. Mary rapids, which are circumvented on both the Canadian and American side by canals a little over a mile in length; from here on the St. Lawrence is known as St. Mary's River, which together with Hay and Mud lakes forms the connection to Lake Huron. The tonnage of ships passing through the Canadian Sault Ste. Marie canal is circa 40,000,000 tons carried by 8,000 vessels. There figures are increasing year for year. Their significance will be better understood, if we remember that the tonnage and number of ships passing through is double that of the tonnage and number of vessels passing through the Suez Canal. The greatest length of Lake Huron is 207 miles, its greatest breadth 101 miles; it has an area of 23,200 square miles, and a mean depth of 700 feet. Its waters are deep and clear. The north shore is high and rocky. In Georgian Bay, its eastern extension, there are over 30,000 islands. When the St. Lawrence leaves lake Huron it takes the name of the St. Clair River which leads into Lake St. Clair, a shallow sheet of water, 25 miles long, and 20 miles wide; from St. Clair lake it passes into Lake Erie as the Detroit River. The greatest length of Erie is 239 miles, its greatest breadth 59; it has an area of 10,000 square miles with a mean depth of 84 feet, and a greatest depth of 210. The shores of this lake are level and low and extremely fertile. The water connections between lakes Erie and Ontario are by way of the Niagara River, which is 33 miles long, and it is by the drop of Niagara Falls that all the four lakes west of Ontario discharge into that lake. Lake Ontario is 193 m. long at it greatest length, and has an average breadth of 40 miles. Its area is 7,260 square miles. Its waters are deep, having a mean depth of

500 feet; at its greatest depth it is 738 feet. The shores of Lake Ontario are also low. At the eastern end it narrows down and is studded with a group of islands known as the Thousand Islands, one of the wonders of the North American continent.

The Maritime Provinces, namely New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, though richly endowed with rivers, do not, with the exception of the St. John in New Brunswick contain any great rivers; this is of course quite natural if we consider the smallness of Prince Edward Island, and the narrowness of Nova Scotia. But in the St. John New Brunswick possesses a river of the first magnitude, having a total length of 500 miles.

The most important lake in Manitoba is Lake Winnipeg. It is navigable from the mouth of Red River at the south end, to Nelson River at the north end, a distance of 300 miles, steamers can also pass down to Winnipeg another 40 miles. Lake Winnipegosis, and Lake Manitoba run parallel with Lake Winnipeg; the former lying to the north, the latter to the south. Winnipegosis is connected at its southern end with the railway, and is navigable from this point in a northerly direction for 120 miles. This lake is surrounded by a timber country, and some good agricultural land; its area in 2,080 square miles. Lake Manitoba is navigable for a distance of 125 miles, it covers an area of 1850 square miles. The province of Saskatchewan is nearly filled with lakes, especially the northern two thirds. Chief of these are lakes Athabasca (2,842 square miles) and Reindeer (2,473 square miles). Lake Athabasca is partly in Alberta: it lies almost on the northern boundary of the two provinces, and is cut in half by their north-south boundary line. Lake Athabasca is connected at the south-west corner with the Athabasca River, and at the north-west corner with the Peace River

and the Slave River at Fort Chipewyan. This is a deep water lake, and is now navigated from Fort Chipewyan to Fond du Lac; it is on the route to the Mackenzie River country, and forms an important section for navigation to the northern territories. Its tributaries are the Athabasca, Peace and Slave rivers. The chief lake at present in Alberta is the Lesser Slave Lake. Alberta is strange to say, compared with Saskatchewan, poor in lakes, although the boundary line between the two provinces is only an astronomical one passing along the 110th degree of longitude. When we say chief lake, we must remember that as settlement continues on its way northward, other lakes, the very outline of which are not exactly mapped as yet, will become important geographical and economic factors, whereas at present they lie silent and alone under the stars, their shores untrodden by the feet of man as they have lain for countless centuries. In the Mackenzie Territory, through which flows the great river of that name to the Arctic, lies the Great Slave Lake, and further to the north-west the Great Bear Lake. The Great Slave Lake covers an area of over 10,100 square miles, and is connected on the south side with the Slave River, and at the northwest part with its continuation, the Mackenzie River. The lake is deep, with only a few known indentations or natural harbours. Steamboats run from the Slave River to the Mackenzie, a distance of 100 miles, and to Fort Ray, a distance of 130 miles. Boats also run from Fort Resolution on the lake to Fort Smith on the Slave River, and to the mouth of the Mackenzie River, a distance of 1,105 miles. Of Great Bear Lake little is known. The lake is irregular in shape: its length is 175 miles, and its breadth varies from 25 to 45 miles; but if it is measured across by its opposite northern and southern arms, the distance would be 180 miles. The

area of the lake is 11,200 square miles, and its average depth exceeds 270 feet. It is open for only three months in the year. On the shores of this lake it takes four centuries for the growth of a tree the trunk of which is not as thick as a man's wrist.

One of the most important rivers of the west is the Red River in Manitoba upon which Winnipeg is situated. It is navigable from its mouth in Lake Winnipeg to Winnipeg city, a distance of 45 miles; it is also navigable to Grand Forks in the state of Dakota (a distance of 140 miles) for steamers of small draught. It rises in American territory in the state of Minnesota, 100 miles of its course are in Canada; its total length is 700 miles. A large branch of the Red River is the Assiniboine which flows into it at Winnipeg. It has a total length of 450 miles. The most important rivers of the prairie provinces are the North and South Saskatchewan. The double streams rise in the Rocky Mountains, and pass from west to east, uniting to the east of Prince Albert in Saskatchewan they flow as one stream into the northern end of Lake Winnipeg, and continue as the Nelson River to Hudson Bay. The main river, taken together with the south branch, has a length of 1,205 miles. The north Saskatchewan is 760 miles long, the South, 865 miles. The navigable distance to Prince Albert from the mouth of the river in Lake Winnipeg is 700 miles; from here it is navigable for another 800 miles (to Brazeau river) for steamers of small draught.

The Athabasca begins the great Mackenzie River system, indeed, it is considered to be the upper Mackenzie. It is 776 miles long, and like the two Saskatchewans has its sources in the Rockies. It runs almost due north to Lake Athabasca, emerges out of this as the Slave River which runs into the Great Slave Lake, and leaves its

western end as the mighty Mackenzie. The Athabasca is navigable from its mouth at Lake Athabasca to Fort Mc Murray 187 miles south, and to Fort Smith (on Slave River) 303 miles north, a combined distance of 490 miles, and further for another 458 miles from Mc Murray via Lake Athabasca to a place called the Chutes on the Peace River which also belongs to the Great Mackenzie Basin, and flows into Lake Athabasca from the south-west, also having its sources in the Rockies. This river is 905 miles long. With an interruption of a two-mile portage at the Chutes, this stream is navigable for another 660 miles to Hudson's Hope in British Columbia.

Slave River is navigable from its head at Lake Athabaska to Smith Landing, a distance of 118 miles. All vessels running on Lake Athabasca, and Peace River include in their trips Slave River. At Smith Landing a portage of 16 miles intervenes to Fort Smith. From this point the river is navigable for 194 miles by deep draught steamers. All boats traverse the Great Slave lake and run down the Mackenzie river. This magnificent stream is navigable from its head at Great Slave lake to its mouth, in the Arctic Ocean, a distance of 1,025 miles. Steamboats on the Mackenzie — including the waterways already mentioned — have a free run of 1,309 miles.

Turning back eastwards we come to the Nelson River which is in Manitoba. It rises in a chain of small lakes which are part of the northern end of Lake Winnipeg. The river is approximately 360 miles in length and empties into Hudson Bay at Port Nelson. It is not navigable along its whole length but only 40 miles from its mouth. To its north runs the Churchill, a very important river rising in Saskatchewan, it is 1,100 miles long and also flows into Hudson Bay at Fort Churchill, a port of future importance. It is only navigable in sections.

The rivers of British Columbia are as a rule not long. The Fraser River is the most important. It is 740 miles long, and is wild and turbulant as is but natural if we consider the mountainous country it drains. It is navigable a hundred miles from its mouth in the Strait of Georgia which lies between Vancouver Island and the coast of British Columbia. The long narrow lakes running north and south from the American frontier are all navigable, they are named respectively, from the west to the east Lilloote and Harrison Lakes, Shuswap (north of Okahanagan), Okahanagan, Upper and Lower Arrow, and Kootenay lakes. All the above mentioned lakes and rivers by no means exhaust the Canadian fresh-waters, but are the chief ones in the better known and inhabitable parts of the Dominion.

It has been pointed out that Canada has four main and distinct geographical regions. The eastern seaboard, and the basin of the St. Lawrence, the prairies, the Hudson Bay regions, and the mountainous western coast. Both the western and eastern coasts are high, but the western by far the highest. Roughly speaking the North American continent is a great V-shaped piece of land, the outlines of which are formed on the west by the Rocky Mountains, the Cascade Range, the Sierra Nevada and Madre, on the east by the Appalachian system which runs from near the Gulf of Mexico right away in a north-easterly direction parallel to the United States coast and through the Provinces of Quebec and New Brunswick, also cropping up through the length of Nova Scotia. Thus we have two distinct systems, in between which lies comparatively flat land; pronouncedly so in the west, less so in the undulating surface of the St. Lawrence basin.

"As compared with the general surface features of Europe and Asia, those of North America are simple

and broad. This is most clearly shown in the contrast presented by the mountain systems in the two cases . . . The general name for the mountains bordering the eastern coast . . . is the Appalachian system (which include the Alleghanies), while those which form a belt along the west coast are often collectively known as the Rocky Mountains, but are more correctly termed the Cordilleran system.

Of these two dominant mountain systems, that of the western side of the continent is much more important, being, in fact, one of the principal mountain systems of the world. The Appalachians, indeed, when compared with the Cordillera, seem scarcely to deserve to be ranked as a mountain system, but they are nevertheless notable as contrasted with the lowlands in their vicinity, and because of their effect not only on the outer form of the continent, but also on its drainage system . . . The great influence of the Appalachian system on the surface features is largely explained by the fact that the date of its origin lies far back in geological times. The crumpling and fracture of the earth's crust, which produced its ranges, had for a long time been practically completed before the similar disturbances which gave form to most of the present bold features of the western Cordillera had begun. In consequence of the great age of the Appalachian ranges their original height has been very much reduced by rain, rivers, and other natural agents of waste, so that they are now but remnants of their former selves." [24]

Between the Rocky Mountain and Appalachian chain lies the great V-shaped nucleus of the North American Continent which is practically wholly within the Dominion of Canada. This nucleus is a vast area of Azoic rock known as Laurentian. It runs roughly from near the mouth of the Mackenzie in a south-easterly direction to

slightly south-west of Lake Superior, then skirts round the north of that lake and Lake Huron, sends a feeler from the eastern shores of Georgian Bay across the St. Lawrence to the east of Lake Ontario — including the Thousand Islands — and ends in the state of New York at the upper reaches of the Hudson river. It includes the whole of the Labrador peninsula and most of Baffin Land, it follows roughly the course of the St. Lawrence, though it recedes away from that river behind Montreal and Quebec. The Maritime provinces are not within the Laurentian nucleus. The whole of the country included in it is hilly and rough, and is more undulating than peaked. Its highest summits are reached in the eastern mountains of Labrador which attain in places a height of 6,000 feet, in the mountains on the Saguenay River which vary from 1,500 to 1,800 feet, and the Trembling Mountains to the north of Montreal which attain to a height of 2,380 feet. The Azoic rock recedes from Hudson Bay in a wide circle (circa 100 miles at its outward curve to the west) from about the sixty-first north parallel of latitude to return gradually to the south-west corner of the bay at the entrance of James Bay, again recedes some two hundred miles to the west and returns at the south-eastern end of James Bay to follow up the whole of the eastern shores of Hudson Bay. To the west of the Azoic nucleus of Canada lie the prairie provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta; the great plains region of the Dominion. "The term prairies, as applied to the Canadian Northwest, is a comprehensive one, and is used to denote all that lower portion of the Great Plains Region north of the 49th parallel found within the confines of the three western provinces (mentioned above). Commencing some fifty miles east of Winnipeg, at the western edge or rim of the Laurentian area, it ex-

tends westward to the foothills of the Rockies, though it must not be supposed that this immense stretch of country, some eight hundred miles, if measured near the southern boundaries of the provinces, is one continuous, uninterrupted prairie or plain. It is rather, as we shall see, a series of three great plains, marked off by more or less distinct lines of escarpment which frequently take the form of ridges and wooded hills. Considering the plains as a whole, they are found to narrow as we proceed northward, contracting to about four hundred miles at the 56th parallel, and to still less north of the 62nd parallel. They may be said to terminate at about the 65th parallel, or with the shores of the Great Bear Lake. So far as Canada is concerned it may therefore, be considered as, in general, a huge wedge-shaped area extending northward and with its base lying along the Canadian frontier.

Settlement began in the south of this prairie country, and by rapid strides is now yearly extending northward. . . . Dr. G. M. Dawson . . . describing this area, wrote as follows: "The southern part of this great plain is not only the most important from an economic point of view, but also that about which most is known. It includes the wide prairie country of the Canadian west, with a spread of 193,000 square miles of open grass land, an area more than twice that of Great Britain. Beyond the North Saskatchewan River, the plain becomes essentially a region of forest, with only occasional prairie tracts, such as those of the Peace River valley." Since that was written, thousands have taken up land in the North-west, and every year has seen successful grain-growing pushed further and further to the north.

We have briefly referred to the three steppes which constitute this interior plain. The first and lowest of these prairie levels is that of the Red River valley with an

elevation of about 800 feet above the sea. Its northern portion is occupied by the Winnipeg group of lakes, and to the south of Lake Winnipeg, in the language of Dr. Dawson "it comprises some 7,000 square miles of prairie land, which, to the eye, is absolutely flat, although rising uniformly to the east and west of the river. This is the former bed of the glacial "Lake Agassiz", the sediments of which constitute the richest wheat lands of Manitoba.

The second or middle prairie, with an average elevation of 1,600 feet, extends from the escarpment forming the western boundary of the first prairie to a second fairly well marked and nearly parallel rise, known as the Missouri Coteau. The first escarpment referred to comprises the so-called "Pembina Mountain" in the south, and continues in a northwesterly direction including the Riding, Duck, Porcupine and Pasquia Hills. The approximate area of this plain is given at 105,000 square miles, more than half of which is stated to be open prairie. It is less regular in its surface than the Red River valley or lower prairie level, undulations, low hills and ridges being not uncommon. The soil is by no means as uniform in character and richness as that of the first prairie, though large areas are of exceedingly fine quality and extremely fertile.

The third steppe, with an average elevation of 3,000 feet, continues from the Missouri Coteau to the Rockies, and includes the western portion of Saskatchewan and Alberta, south of the North Saskatchewan River. Between the 49th and 54th paralleles, it has an area of about 134,000 square miles, open prairie land for the most part of its southern portion, but wooded towards its northern and north-western confines. Its topography is still more diversified than that of the second plain, due . . . to more

energetic, and longer action of the denuding forces of rain and rivers, both before and after the glacial period. The character of the soil is still more varied than that of the second steppe; while there is much that is fertile and good — indeed, excellent — areas of some magnitude exist which, without special methods to overcome the presence of alkali, insufficient precipitation or unfavourable conditions, cannot be profitably farmed." [25]

When we come to British Columbia the Pacific province, we find a huge country filled with mountains, the eastern edge of which forms the half of its eastern boundary. With the exception of a triangular region of plain in the north-eastern corner, "the whole of British Columbia belongs to the Cordillera region of the continent, and is characteristically a country of mountains. The breadth of the Cordillera belt, from the coast to its north-eastern margin, is, throughout the southern and greater part of British Columbia, about 400 miles. South of the International boundary it becomes much wider, and it is also considerably wider in the northern part of this province. In this narrower part of the Cordillera the constituent mountain ranges are more regular and more nearly parallel than elsewhere, their general direction being, like that of the coast, north-west and south-east. But even here this broken country presents so great an intricacy of detail, and exhibits so many local conditions, that its ruling features only can be explained. Broadly viewed, the dominant and most important mountain systems are the Rocky Mountains on the north-east side of the belt, and the coast range which borders the Pacific. The intervening country comprises the Interior Plateau, together with various ranges which have been grouped together as the Gold Range, as well as other detached mountains and irregular mountain tracts.

The average width of the Rocky Mountains range proper, in the southern part of British Columbia, is about 60 miles, but this decreases to the north-westward, till, in latitude 56°, it is about 20 miles only. Still farther to the north-west this range is more irregular. The southern part of the range includes many peaks exceeding 10,000 feet in altitude, and farther north-westward, about the sources of the North Saskatchewan, it appears to culminate in Mount Robson (13,700 feet), Mount Murchison (about 13,000 feet), Mount Logan (19,696 feet), Mount Bryce and other lofty summits. Still farther in the same direction, with the decreased width and less regular trend above referred to, it becomes less elevated. Granites and other crystalline rocks are scarcely found in this range, but massive limestones abound, and these, breaking off at right angles to their planes of bedding, produce crags and lines of cliffs which give a special character to the scenery. Glaciers of some size exist in this range about the sources of the Bow and North Saskatchewan.

In studying Canadian economic geography, there is one very important point to be remembered: If we glance at her southern frontier line we are struck with the fact that as far as the settled and cultivated part of Canada is concerned, as far as there is any grouping of towns, settlement clings close along the American frontier in a long thin line right the way through to the Pacific. It seldom gets beyond one hundred miles north of that line; on the St. Lawrence — with the exception of the Eastern Townships which cluster around the northern end of Lake Champlain — the settlement margin is never a hundred miles wide. The Ontario peninsula which juts into the great lakes, is well filled south-west of Lake Simcoe. Only when Manitoba is reached does settlement begin to spread slowly in a north-westerly direction as

distinctly observable by the tentacula of the railway lines. From Lake Simcoe westwards to Winnipeg, the railway line represents the extent of settlement which is limited to a few isolated towns often fifty miles apart, and fitted into rocks and wedged in between forests. Northward of all this long settlement strip lies a wilderness, though not always an unfertile one. From this line settlement is — westward of Winnipeg up to eastern frontier of British Columbia — on a gradually ascending scale, owing to the climatic conditions which make for greater heat in the west than the east. The result is that the line of settlement pushes slowly northward, and it is a proven fact that the limit of the settlement line slowly recedes before the advance of man, just as the desert of Australia is gradually being pushed back. "Of the seven million souls or more now, residing in the Dominion, six millions and a half are probably living within a hundred and fifty miles of that three thousand mile long boundary line, and this is what makes the Dominion unlike any other country in the world. Over the eastern half, speaking approximately, the settlement of population to the northward of this narrow belt will not be sufficient within measurable time, if ever, to alter seriously the present conditions. For the wilderness is generally rough and sterile, and the climate of necessity increasingly severe. On most of the western half, the first conditions do not exist, and the belt is gradually expanding northward, and will continue to do so, till the serverity of climate alone makes further advance impossible."

(A. G. Bradly: *Canada.*)

THE PROVINCES.

THE Dominion of Canada is divided into provinces and territories. The provinces are, beginning at the Atlantic coast: —

Province	Capital	Area (square miles)	Population (census 1911)
I. Nova Scotia	Halifax	21 428	492 338
II. Prince Edward Island	Charlottetown	12 184	93 728
III. New Brunswick	Fredericton	27 985	351 889
IV. Quebec	Quebec	706 834	2 003 238
V. Ontario	Toronto	407 262	2 523 274
VI. Manitoba	Winnipeg	251 832	455 614
VII. Saskatchewan	Regina	251 700	492 432
VIII. Alberta	Edmonton	255 285	374 663
IX. British Columbia	Victoria	355 855	392 480

The Yukon Territory has an area of 196,976 square miles, and a population (census 1911) of 8,512; the North-west Territories — which lie to the east of the Yukon, and north of the three prairie provinces: Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba — are roughly 1,245,000 square miles, with a population of about 20,000. The capital of the whole Dominion is Ottawa in Ontario.

I. NOVA SCOTIA.[26]

The Province of Nova Scotia forms a peninsula at the eastern extremity of the Dominion of Canada, and has an area, as we have seen, of 21,428 square miles. Two natural divisions are the Mainland and the Island of Cape

Breton. It is connected with New Brunswick by an isthmus thirteen miles in width. Its total length is about 350 miles, while the breadth varies from 50 to 100 miles. So nearly surrounded by the sea, its bays and harbours are naturally numerous. There are more than a dozen excellent harbours on the coast line, first in importance being Halifax, which embraces the outer harbour, the Northwest Arm and Bedford Basin. It is celebrated as one of the best in the world. It is easy of access for ships of every class, very capacious and affording protection from every wind; it is open all the year round, and is with St. John (New Brunswick) the winter port of Canada. Halifax is the capital of the province, it has a population of 50,000 (1911), and is the seat of the Provincial Parliament. The town was founded in 1749.

The bays of Nova Scotia are numerous and spacious. The largest is the Bay of Fundy, whose tides are noted the world over for their great rise and fall. Other bays are St. Margaret's and Mahone, studded with islands and containing many coves.

Nova Scotia is pre-eminently a well watered country. Its rivers are numerous; but owing to the peninsular formation of the country, are necessarily small. The Shubenacadie is the largest. A very great number are navigable for a short distance from their mouth.

The marked inequality in the surface of Nova Scotia, is the cause for the formation of many lakes scattered over it in every direction. Some of these lakes are extremely beautiful, while the hills that environ them are embellished with the greatest variety of scenery. Most of these lakes abound with trout, perch, and other varieties of fresh water fish.

The principle ranges of mountains and hills are the Cobequid Mountains, a ridge extending from Cape St.

George through Antigonish and Pictou counties, and the South and North mountains.

The island of Cape Breton is separated from Nova Scotia by the Strait of Canso, eighteen miles in length and varying from half a mile to a mile and a half in width. The most striking geographical peculiarity of the island is the existence of a salt water lake or inland sea called Bras d'Or Lake.

The scenery of Nova Scotia is diversified and picturesque; the surface presenting the alternate features of hill and vale. The less cultivated portions of the province with their variety of wood, and stream and lake, possess attractive features of natural beauty. The scenery of some of the spacious bays is beautiful beyond description, especially that of Mahone Bay which is studded with numberless islets; and the rugged scenery of parts of the Basin of Minas present striking pictures of the grand in Nature.

The climate of Nova Scotia may be described as similar to that of the northern part of the United States, but sharing neither the excessive heat nor the extreme cold of the latter. The prevailing winds are the south-west and the north-west. The north, and north-west, and west in the summer are cool and dry, and in winter cold. The south-west wind is mild and agreeable, though in spring and autumn sometimes stormy. Statistics show that the climate is among the most healthful in the world. The average length of human life is greater in Nova Scotia than in most countries of the temperate zone. There are no diseases peculiar to the country, and there are none that are desiminated in an unusual or even notable degree of rapidity or virulence. There are no large shallow lakes and morasses filled with stagnant water, to render the air at all unwholesome; the nature of the

country's surface, and the nearness of every part of it to the open sea, render the air remarkably pure.

Great Britain's claim upon Nova Scotia was originally based upon the discoveries of the Cabots. The first settlement was made by the French in 1605 at Port Royal, now Annapolis Royal (on an arm of the Bay of Fundy known as Annapolis Basin). Sir William Alexander in 1621 received from the King a grant of the Acadian peninsula with Cape Breton Island, a grant that included what are now New Brunswick and Gaspe. Sir William who was a patriotic Scotchman, gave to the land the name of Nova Scotia — a name that has since been narrowed down to the peninsula and the island. From that time, for a century, the nations of France and England disputed ownership to this territory. Each secured possession in turn, until in 1713 the peninsula was ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht. The island of Cape Breton remained in possession of France. In 1745 a New England expedition captured Louisburg, which in 1748 was restored to France. In 1749 a vital step to further strengthen their hold on Nova Scotia was taken by the British Government. Halifax was founded under Governor Cornwallis and was made the capital. Then in 1754 and 1755 came the capture of Beausejour, at the head of Chignecto Bay, by the English, and the expulsion of the Acadians. An act that has been sung by Longfellow in *Evangeline* in a somewhat biassed manner. In 1758 came the final fall of the great French fortress Louisburg on Cape Breton Island, and, in 1763, the Treaty of Paris confirmed the English in their possession of Nova Scotia.

The first representative assembly in Nova Scotia, and indeed in all Canada, was convened in Halifax in 1758. After the revolutionary war in the United States, about

twenty thousand Empire Loyalists — colonists in the United States who remained true to the British crown — came to the province. In 1784 New Brunswick became a separate province. In the same year Cape Breton also became an independent province, a disunion that lasted until 1820. In 1848, responsible government was secured after a reform agitation led by Joseph Howe. In 1867 the confederation of four provinces of Canada was brought about, and Nova Scotia became an integral part of the Dominion of Canada.

Under the British North America Act (1867), the charter of Confederation, certain and important powers of self-government are conceded to each province. All matters of national importance, such as militia, excise, customs, banking, fisheries, commerce, postal service, etc., are controlled by the Federal authorities at Ottawa, the capital of Canada. Other matters, such as education, administration of justice, provincial taxation, municipal matters, roads, bridges, etc., come under the Provincial Governments. In others again — as for example, agriculture and immigration, — there is a joint jurisdiction. Should the two interests clash, the provincial must give way to the federal.

Nova Scotia elects eighteen representatives in the Dominion House of Commons, of which number, two are members of the federal cabinet. This province has also ten members in the Senate.

The Provincial legislature consists of two branches, the Legislative Council of twenty-one members, appointed by the Governor-in-Council, and the House of Assembly of thirty-eight members, elected by the people by ballot, and representing the several counties. A general election of members must take place every five years.

The provincial executive power, or Local Government

of Nova Scotia, is similar in almost every respect to that of the other provinces. There is a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Governor-General-in-Council, an executive council of not more than nine, chosen from the members of the Legislature, including the heads of departments, namely, the Provincial Secretary, who is also Treasurer; the Attorney-General, who is also Commissioner of Crown Lands; and the Commissioner of Public Works and Mines. The other members of the Council are without office.

Each city and town has its municipal administration, and each county, exclusive of the cities and towns, has its county council. The schools in the rural sections are administered by boards of trustees elected by the rate or poll-tax payers. In the cities and incorporated towns, these duties are performed by boards of school commissioners, in part chosen by the city or town council, and in part appointed by the Governor-in-Council.

Civic or municipal taxation is nowhere burdensome or heavy, and is generally very light.

Halifax and Sydney are the only cities. The population of the city of Halifax is about 50,000, and that of Sydney about 18,000. In Glace Bay, and within a radius of three miles of this coal mining centre, there is a population of 25,000. Amherst is a thriving manufacturing town with a population of about 10,000. Truro is an educational centre; the Provincial Normal School and the Agricultural College are situated here. Yarmouth is a shipping port in the south-west corner of the province. Dartmouth, across the harbour from Halifax, is the home of a cordage manufactory, a sugar refinery and a skate factory. New Glasgow is an important business centre in Pictou County, where there are extensive coal fields.

Owing to the singular diversity of the natural resources

of the province, there is as great variety in the productions of Nova Scotia industry as are to be found anywhere. The products of the soil, the mine, the forest and the sea are here in abundance. With unsurpassed geographical position, her communications by sea and rail, never cut off by the frosts of winter, commerce should naturally flourish. Her facilities for the construction of ships are unequalled. The industrial resources of the province may thus be classified into agriculture, fisheries, manufactures, lumbering, shipbuilding, and mines. Commerce of various kinds affords employment for a large number.

In Nova Scotia the principles of democratic government are thoroughly well understood and practised. The people rule. It was in this province that responsible government was secured by that great citizen and statesman, Joseph Howe, a leader and a patriot who had not only a provincial but an international reputation. In other lands the right of the people by assembly to control the administration of affairs was wrested from the governing bodies of the day by struggles on the battlefield; in Nova Scotia the struggle was waged more temperately but with equal success. On public platform, in the press of the day, by argument, by eloquence, by satire, Joseph Howe and his band of reformers waged a campaign that broke up the old "family compact", as it was called, and substituted for it a government that was subservient to the will of the people as expressed in the General Assembly of the province.

Under the influence of that prolonged struggle for the people's rights, citizens of Nova Scotia could not fail to develop a strong and healthy social life. Comparatively small place is given to social distinctions. There is enough intelligence to estimate a man for what he is in character and ability rather than for the clothes he wears or the

parentage of which he may boast. In the rural districts especially, as also in the towns and villages, people generally mingle together on the terms of social equality.

Many of the leading statesmen and professional men of high standing in the province have risen from humble beginnings and from country homes, where the means of living were scanty.

II. PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.[27]

Although Prince Edward Island is the smallest of the Canadian provinces, is goes by the proud name of Canada's Garden Province. It is the most densely populated, having a population of nearly fifty to the square mile, or twice as many as any other Province, and has the largest percentage of cultivatable soil.

A glance at the map shows Prince Edward Island to lie in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, off the coasts of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Charlottetown (population 12,000, 1911), the capital, is situated on the south side of the Island, some three miles from the mouth of a magnificent harbour, in Latitude 46 degrees 14 minutes North, or nine degrees South of Edinburgh, and in Longitude 63 degrees 10 minutes West.

The Island is separated from its sister provinces by the Strait of Northumberland, which, at its narrowest point, has a width of about eight miles, and is usually frozen over in winter.

From Liverpool, Prince Edward Island is distant about 2,500 miles. Halifax, Nova Scotia, which would be the most convenient port of arrival for the emigrant from Great Britain, is distant 113 miles by rail, and fifty by water, the latter part of the journey being made in remarkably fine, well-equipped steamships. Leaving Halifax at noon, the traveller arrives in Charlottetown between

eight and nine p. m., the same evening, by boat from Pictou.

The Island is of an irregular crescent shape, some 140 miles long, and varies in width from four to thirty miles. Its area is about 2,184 square miles, containing about 1,397,991 acres of land, all of which, save a very small percentage, is splendidly adapted for agricultural purposes.

The Island up to the closing years of the Eighteenth Century, was called the Island of St. John, or rather Isle St. Jean, after St. John the Baptist, from the day in which it was said to have been discovered. There were a number of other St. John's in the Maritime parts of British North America, which caused confusion, and, to remedy this, the Legislature, in 1798, changed the name to Prince Edward Island, being so named after the Duke of Kent (father of Her late Majesty Queen Victoria), who had been for several years stationed at Halifax. Besides its official name, the Island has several other well-known familiar designations, all having reference to, and being derived from the noted fertility of its soil. The "Million Acre Farm" is the name often applied to it. It is known far and near in Canada as *The Island*. But outside of its official name, the name by which Prince Edward Island is best known, and which was given it generations ago, is that of "The Garden of the Gulf".

It was not one of the original members of the Confederation, when the Dominion came into being in 1867 (by the British North America Act) „although the initial Conference on the question of Union of the British North American Provinces, was held at Charlottetown, in 1864. The Island did not come into the Confederation until 1873, or six years after the union of the four original Provinces, Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

Prince Edward Island was long believed to have been discovered in 1497, by John Cabot, who sailed on his first voyage of discovery, from Bristol, that year. The better opinion, based upon recent researches, now seems to be that it was discovered by Jacques Cartier in 1534. He sighted the North Coast of the western part of the Island, on 30th June of that year. Cartier, who was a most observant explorer, and who carefully examined and noted the appearance and peculiarities of every place visited by him, described the land as being "low and plain, and the fairest that may possibly be seen, full of goodly meadows and trees". He landed at a number of places along the coast, and made a close scrutiny of its features, and was most favourably impressed with its appearance. He described the trees as wonderfully beautiful, and the land as good and abounding in small wild fruits. The climate also was very pleasant. A like favourable impression was made on all subsequent explorers. Save that the forests have largely given place to cultivated farms, Cartier's description is as applicable to-day, as when it was made.

After the cession of Acadia to Great Britain, by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the French, who retained this Island, recognized its importance, owing to the great fertility of its soil, as a base of supplies for their great fortress at Louisburg, and for their naval and military forces in their remaining North American possessions. Consequently, they settled the Island, which soon became their granary, and furnished the grain, meat and other provisions, required by their forces. They had a Governor here, and a couple of officers or commissaries, whose duty it was, to procure in the island, the food supplies required by the forces.

Upon the fall of Louisburg in 1758, the Island was

taken possession of by the British. By the Treaty of Paris in 1763, it was, with the remaining French possessions in North America, excepting a couple of islands, and some fishing privileges on the Newfoundland Coast, ceded to Great Britain, and annexed to the Province of Nova Scotia.

Because of its fertility, the British Government placed a high value upon the Island. In consequence, it was proposed to levy a Quit Rent upon lands granted here, fifty per cent higher than was imposed upon lands elsewhere in the North American Provinces.

Its fertility and great promise as an agricultural country, as well as its situation in the centre of the great saltwater fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, recommended the Island to the attention of many officers of the navy and army, as well as to such civilians as were then acquainted with this part of North America, numbers of whom made applications to the British government, for grants of estates in this island. The British government caused the Island to be surveyed and divided into three counties: King's, Queen's and Prince's, which division has been retained, and those counties constitute the electoral districts or ridings, for the election of members to the House of Commons of Canada. Each county was also divided into parishes and townships. The township, usually called "Lot", is the unit generally considered, in describing the sub-divisions into which the three counties are divided. Of these townships, there are 67 in all, containing, approximately, nearly 20,000 acres each, though they vary somewhat in area.

The number of applicants for grants was so great, that there were not sufficient townships for all. Lots were drawn for grants, and the whole island, with the exception of a couple of townships, and some town and

fishery reservations, was parcelled out in a lottery among the applicants.

In this way, the landlord system was established, and for a century, the farmers were mainly tenants, holding under leases, at a yearly rental. This system of land tenure, or landlordism, is not adapted to the New World, where every man looks to own the freehold of his land, and it does not take firm root there. It was, therefore the cause in the Island of a century of bitter struggle on the part of the people, before they threw it off.

Finally, in 1875, the Legislature of the Island enacted a Compulsory Land Purchase Act, under which the system was abolished, and the proprietors of the different estates compelled to sell to the provincial government, at a valuation fixed by a competent commission appointed for that purpose. The provincial government, when the title to the land became vested in it, sold the different holdings to the tenants, on easy terms, at a low valuation, calculated upon the rentals. The vacant, unleased lands were sold to any bona fide purchaser, who applied for them. Since that time, the lease-hold tenures have been converted into freehold, and now, with very few exceptions, the farms of Prince Edward Island are owned by their occupants in fee simple. Of the farms of the Island, about 97 per cent are so owned.

The union with Nova Scotia did not long continue. In 1769 the Island of St. John was erected into a separate Province, with a government of its own. It was then almost entirely in a wilderness state, without roads or other public conveniences, and the population consisted, besides Indians, of only 150 white families.

The surface of the country is undulating, the highest land being about 300 feet in height, and, owing to the gentleness of the slopes, nowhere presents obstacles to cultivation.

While there is no grand scenery to be found in Prince Edward Island, there are innumerable vistas of surpassing beauty. The views over many a winding river or stream, about the numerous harbours and bays, with the snug farms, equipped with good, roomy, comfortable houses and buildings, with groves and scattered trees of spruce, birch, beech, maple and other woods, sloping down to the water's edge, give a park-like appearance to the face of the land, most fair to look upon, and give evidence of the natural wealth with which the soil is blessed.

The climate is good. The summer is particularly delightful. The temperature very seldom reaches 80 degrees F., while at night, not pleasantly cool, is a rarity. The extremes of heat and cold, found in other lands, are here moderated by fresh breezes from the surrounding sea. Most of the harbours are frozen up in winter from about the middle of December to the first week in April.

The Island is governed by a Lieutenant-Governor and a local parliament known as the Legislative Assembly which has thirty members. There is a cabinet of three members with portfolio, and six (in 1913) without.

III. NEW BRUNSWICK.[28]

New Brunswick, which is the largest of the three Maritime Provinces of the Dominion of Canada, lies mainly between the 45th and 48th parallels of latitude, and the 64th and 68th degrees of longitude. It is almost square in shape, and is surrounded on three sides by the ocean; on the north by the Bay Chaleur, on the east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the south by the Bay of Fundy. This gives it a larger coast line in proportion to its area than most continental countries possess, and for this reason its fisheries are extensive and valuable. The area of the province is 27,500 square miles. This

is about the area of Scotland without the islands, and is about one-sixth less than that of Ireland. The population of New Brunswick, however, is not one-tenth as great as that of either Scotland or Ireland, so that it contains immense possibilities of development, and opens up a splendid field for the industrious settler.

This province was first discovered by Jacques Cartier, in the year 1534, but no attempt at a settlement was made until the year 1604, when De Monts and Champlain wintered on an island in the St. Croix River. It was for more than a century after this in French possession, being a portion of the Province of Acadia, but when Acadia passed to Great Britain under the Treaty of Utrecht, it formed a part of the English Province of Nova Scotia. During the French occupation, the settlements were inconsiderable, and it had been a long time in the possession of the English before much progress was made in settling it, notwithstanding the remarkable fertility of much of its soil.

The first English settlement was established on the St. John River in the year 1762 at Mangerville, and about the same time, a settlement was also founded at the mouth of the river. The people who came to New Brunswick at that time were from the colony of Massachusetts. At the close of the war of the American Revolution, large numbers of loyalists came to New Brunswick, and the city of St. John was founded. New Brunswick was separated from Nova Scotia in the year 1789, and since then has enjoyed a government of its own. After that time, large numbers of immigrants came to it from the United Kingdom. Its people therefore are mainly descended from the loyalists and from immigrants from Great Britain, but there is also a considerable French population in the counties along the Gulf of St. Lawrence and in

Madawaska. These people are the descendants of the ancient Acadians, who were settled here two centuries and a half ago. In 1867, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Ontario became united into the confederation. Since then British Columbia, Prince Edward Island and the enormous possessions of the Hudson Bay Company, from which the prairie provinces were carved, have been added.

The system of government in New Brunswick is similar to that which prevails in the Dominion, except that there is but one legislative body, the House of Assembly, which is elected by the people. Responsible government prevails to its fullest extent, and the existence of the government depends on the vote of the House of Assembly. New Brunswick is divided into fifteen counties, each of which is a municipality, and is governed by a body elected by the people, which is known as the municipal council, and which contains representatives from each parish. Each county is divided into parishes in the same fashion as in England, but these have no connection with any ecclesiastical matters, for there is no established church in the province.

New Brunswick possesses a climate of exceptional healthfulness, and there is no country in the world that is more free from epidemic diseases. The most northerly portion of the province is two degrees south of the most southerly portion of England. The city of St. John is in the same latitude as Milan and Venice. The climate however differs very considerably from that of western Europe, and especially from that of the British Isles. It is what might be described as a continental climate, with characteristics similar to those of eastern Europe. The climate of most of New Brunswick is free from humidity, so that the heat and cold are less felt than they are in a damp climate.

The seasons in New Brunswick are different from those of the British Isles. The change from winter to summer is sudden, and the autumn is protracted and long drawn out, and is the most delightful season of the year. The winter of New Brunswick — which is severe — when the ground is covered with snow for from three to four months, serves a most useful purpose in the economy of nature, as well as for the business of man. It is during the winter that the lumberman gets his logs together and places them on the banks of the rivers ready for the spring freshet. The summers are delightfully warm, although not excessively so. Vegetation advances with rapid strides, and at a rate of growth unknown in Europe. Not only do wheat, oats, barley, buckwheat and all kinds of root crops grow to perfection, but also maize, tomatoes and grapes.

Topographically New Brunswick is what may be described as a rolling country, which means that it is not a dead level like the prairie regions, neither is it mountainous. Most of the hills are of no great height, although in some portions of the province they are high enough to be termed mountains. Being a portion of the continent, it of course resembles in its topographical features and climate the adjoining portions of Quebec and New England. The scenery is picturesque and varied, but a large portion of the province consists of one vast forest, for this reason lumbering is the chief industry, so much so, that farming has been considerably neglected up to now.

The coast line of the Bay of Fundy is rocky and bold and indented with several fine harbours, the principle ones being St. John, L'Étang, and St. Andrews. On the Bay of Chaleur and Gulf of St. Lawrence, the shore is less rugged, and the harbours are not so deep. Few countries are so well watered as New Brunswick. Lakes

are numerous and there are many rivers and streams, some of them of large size.

IV. QUEBEC.

The Province of Quebec forms a vast triangle with its base running due north and south, and its sides running north-east, and south-east, having its apex at the Strait of Belle Isle which separates Newfoundland from the main land. Its Atlantic coast strip is known as Labrador, and nominally belongs to Newfoundland. This is not only geographically the largest, but the most uniquely situated, province, and is the very gate and key of the country, as the St. Lawrence flows through its southern part for two thirds of its length when it leaves the great lakes. Of Quebec S. E. Dawson writes: "This province is entitled to consideration and special study as the pivot province of the Dominion. No matter how the population of the provinces may wax or wane, Quebec by the fundamental law, must always have sixty-five members in the House of Commons. The representation of the other provinces is regulated at each census" (taken every ten years) "by the proportion which their population bears to that of the province of Quebec, so that, the delegation from Quebec remaining always the same, the others are adjusted to it. This indicates some peculiar circumstances connected with Quebec requiring a special safeguard, and it is found in the fact that eighty per cent of its inhabitants speak French as their mother tongue. Quebec moreover, demands the attention of the student because it is the germ of Canada. From the narrow shore under the cliff of Cape Diamond went forth the initial force which penetrated the wilderness from Hudson's Bay to the Ohio, and from Labrador to the Saskatchewan. Somewhere on that cliff, unmarked and unknown, is the grave of Samuel

Champlain, the founder of New France — one of the noblest, bravest, gentlest men who ever sailed on the ocean or trod a forest trail; for ocean and forest were familiar to him. He was the type of a class of men common in the France of that period."

The southern limits of Quebec are formed in the south-east by New Brunswick and Chaleur Bay, by the international boundary in the south, and by the Ottawa river, from where it flows into the St. Lawrence or rather the Lake of Two Mountains — as a matter of fact there is a triangular tongue of land lying between the fork formed by the St. Lawrence and the Lake of Two Mountains, the continuation of the Ottawa to the St. Lawrence which by nature should belong to Ontario, the line running from Point Fortune on the Ottawa, to Point au Baudet on that part of the St. Lawrence where it widens into Lake St. Francis. From Point Fortune the boundary line on the south between Ontario and Quebec runs along the Ottawa and along Lake Timiskaming from where it strikes due north to the middle of James Bay at the southern end of Hudson Bay, and including the whole of the former North West Territories — a distinct misnomer — which lie east of Hudson Bay, with the exception as mentioned above, of the narrow strip of Labrador on the Atlantic coast. The old boundary line ran roughly through the middle of the great triangle washed on the east by Hudson Bay, on the north (its apex) by Hudson Strait, and on the east by the Atlantic. But the new area of 354,961 square miles was added to Quebec in 1912, and the old boundary line abolished. A similar addition was made to Ontario and Manitoba at the same time; this will be found treated in the sections dealing with those provinces. But although Quebec is so mighty in size, her population is all crowded along

the river St. Lawrence, chiefly west of the Saguenay river, and this settlement district only represents about one fiftieth of the area of the province.

That part of the Appalachian Mountains in Vermont which are known by the name of the Green Mountains also project into Quebec, and run up to about thirty miles south of the capital, they then continue parallel with the St. Lawrence and end in the Gaspé Peninsula as the Notre Dame Mountains, they fill out the central part of that peninsula which is a wilderness, and at too high an altitude to be safe from summer frosts. The whole of the north part of the St. Lawrence valley is fringed by undulating hills known as the Laurentide highlands, or simply as the Laurentides, they also follow roughly the shores of the gulf and estuary.

As by far the greater half of the St. Lawrence Basin lies in the province of Quebec, and includes the whole, and more than the whole of the settled and known part a description of the same gives as a very clear conception of the southern part of Quebec. "The basin of the St. Lawrence lies chiefly north of the river, for all its great tributaries flow from that direction. It is separated on the north by a low divide from the basin of Hudson's Bay. Myriads of lakes are the perennial sources of the countless streams which swell the flood of the 'River of Canada', and sustain its volume throughout the year.

While the basin of the St. Lawrence system extends to the headwaters of all its tributaries, the valley of the river in a narrower sense has a character of its own, since it is level and largely alluvial and of more recent geological age. The Archæn nucleus of the continent, known as Laurentian, bounds it all the length of its northern border." [29]

North of the St. Lawrence valley is a vast tableland varying from 1,000 to 1,600 feet in height, and densely

wooded. The city of Quebec stands at the gateway of a central plain to its north with an area of circa 10,000 square miles. Towards Lake Ontario the valley of the St. Lawrence is broad, level, and fertile."

The newly added northern half of Quebec very often went under the term of Labrador. S. E. Dawson confirms this, when he writes: "Labrador is that peninsular mass of north-eastern America which stretches the farthest across the Atlantic towards the British Islands and towards Greenland. It is separated from the main continent by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Hudson's Bay and Strait, and the main Atlantic washes its eastern shore." But official maps up to 1912 designate Labrador as the narrow coastal strip belonging to Newfoundland, and the rest of the country to the north of the old Quebec border as part of the North West Territories.

As a matter of fact the northern part of Quebec is less known than the most ungetatable parts of central Africa and South America. Dawson estimates that 120,000 square miles have never been trodden by the foot of a white man. The country is mainly a rocky tableland of an average elevation of 1,500 to 2,000 feet above sea level. Its interior is mostly of a gentle rolling character. On the Atlantic coast it takes the shape of enormous rocks and cliffs which lend it a most forbidding appearance. The western shores are low. It is estimated that one fourth of the whole country is covered by rivers and lakes. In its present state it is absolutely unsettlable, and strange to say hardly penetrable in summer owing to the mosquitoes and other vicious flies. But this is a characteristic of the Barren Grounds of Canada, and it must be remembered that a large part of northern Quebec lies within the tundra line, and the major part within the 'northern forest' or sparsely-wooded limit.

Only one river is of any importance on the Atlantic coast — those of the interior are shallow, and possess many rapids — namely the great Hamilton River with its Lake Melville and Hamilton Inlet.

The Province of Quebec contains the largest city, and does the greatest amount of external trade. Her ports and her great river are the gateway to all that portion of Canada that lies beyond the provinces by the sea, and extends westward to the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. In natural resources, also, Quebec stands in the front rank of the Canadian Confederation. Her soil for the most part is exceedingly fertile and well adapted to the most profitable kinds of farming; her forests are comparatively boundless in extent, and contain the most valuable varieties of timber; her mineral wealth is still largely undeveloped, but already exceedingly valuable deposits of iron are being worked, and many others are known to exist. Useful structural material abounds in almost every district: limestone, marble, granite and sandstone; gold has been found in paying quantities in several localities, and copper is being mined. Her fisheries are among the most extensive and the most productive of any in the world, and give employment to a large number of people living in the eastern part of the province. The inland waters are well stocked, and thousands of sportsmen seek them each season.

One of the oldest of all crafts, that of the trapper, has still a wide field for its exercise in those vast tracts which lie to the north and west, and still await the axe of the pioneer. Quebec is a province that possesses great possibilities of future growth.

Her position in the Canadian Confederation, and in fact her position on the continent, is unique. Her laws, her language, her traditions, are not those of the other

provinces with which she is linked in national life. Quebec is the New France that Champlain founded, that Frontenac defended, that Vaudreuil surrendered. It is over a century and a half since the flag of France ceased to wave over the valley of the St. Lawrence. To-day the French language is the mother tongue of nearly two millions of its inhabitants. French civil law prevails, and the church of the French-Canadian people enjoys practically the same rights and privileges that it enjoyed under the flag of the Bourbons.

The government of the province is in the hands of a lieutenant-governor, appointed for five years by the Governor-General upon the advice of his ministers. The lieutenant-governor is assisted by an executive council or cabinet whose members hold seats in the legislature, and who must possess the confidence of a majority of the members of the popular branch. There are usually six ministers with portfolios, and two without. The legislative council is composed of 24 members, named for life by the lieutenant-governor in council. The legislative assembly is composed of 74 members elected by the 74 counties or electoral colleges of the Province of Quebec. Each legislature lasts for five years. Each year the members must be summoned to a session by the Executive council to attend to public business.

Extending over such a great area, it is only natural to expect considerable variety of climate in the Province of Quebec; but there are everywhere these prevailing features: cold winters, short springs, and long, bright, sunny summers. During the latter part of March, the snow begins to disappear, and the sunshine and warm showers of April prepare the ground for the reception of crops. Grain is sown during the latter part of April, and potatoes and corn are planted by the middle of May,

except in the northern parts of the province where seed time is about two weeks later. Warm summer weather sets in during June and continues well into September. July is the haymaking month, and the grain crop is harvested during August and early in September. Cattle graze from the middle of May until the last of October, and sometimes well into the month of November. Snow usually falls in November. The snowfall in the part of the province east of Montreal is considerably heavier than elsewhere, and winter there is longer and more severe, but the cold is modified by the dry bracing atmosphere which renders winter agreeable and healthy. The mean summer temperature averages 58.3 degrees and the mean winter temperature 15 degrees. The average rainfall is 28 inches, and the average snowfall 91 inches.

The snow instead of being a drawback is a great benefit to the country. It protects the dormant vegetable life from the severe frosts, and it is a country saying, that plenty of snow means a good hay crop in the following summer. Snow is also necessary for good winter roads, and without it, lumbering operations would be almost at a standstill.

V. ONTARIO.

Ontario may be called the key-stone province of Canada; it partakes in the east partly the character of Quebec, in the centre it has its own rugged traits, in the west it blends with the prairies of Manitoba. The whole of its southern borders are washed by lakes, with the exception of that part west of Lake Superior which is partly a river frontier with intermittent lakes. Thus the whole southern frontier is formed by water. Its northern part is washed by Hudson and James Bay. Its western frontier is purely astronomical, running northward from

the Lake of the Woods along the 95° of longitude till it turns off near the 53° N. lat. at a sharp angle in a north-easterly direction and continues on its way to Hudson Bay, which it reaches close to the intersection of the 89° long. with the 57° lat. N. The old northern border line till 1912 was along the Albany and English rivers with their connecting waterways. The new territory was formerly known as part of Keewatin, and is now known as the District of Patricia. It added 157,400 square miles to Ontario — or over 50 per cent — which now has an area of 407,262 square miles, and is thus the second largest province of Canada.

The physical features of Quebec and Ontario have much in common. Both are undulating, in parts rocky, and well-watered throughout, with innumerable lakes scattered over their length and breadth, both are densely forested save where there are extensive settlements. Much of the resemblance of the two provinces is based on their mutually sharing the St. Lawrence basin. "In respect to surface, Ontario is naturally divided into four main regions. — (1) The region bordering on Hudson Bay, comprising low wooded country, underlaid for the most part by flat limestones of Upper Silurian and Devonian age, which form a wide margin round the south-western part of the bay. (2) The Laurentian region, which occupies the greater portion of the northern part of the province (old frontier), and is continuous with that of the northern part of Quebec (old frontier), with similar characteristics, is, for the most part, a forest country with much valuable timber, but is very sparsely inhabited. The watershed on the Laurentian plateau in Ontario is generally somewhat less elevated than in Quebec. 'Muskegs' or peaty and grass swamps are more abundant on some parts of its surface; and along the north shore of Lake Superior its

border is notably rugged and high. Though generally rocky and unfit for agricultural occupation, considerable tracts of good land occur in some places. A projecting point of this Laurentian country runs south, and crosses the St. Lawrence just below the outlet of Lake Ontario, producing there the picturesque archipelago known as the Thousand Islands. (3) To the east of this point, the region included between the St. Lawrence and Ottawa rivers is the western end of the fertile St. Lawrence plain. (4) A line drawn almost due west from the Thousand Islands to the north-east angle of the Georgian Bay of Lake Huron, nearly follows the southern edge of the corresponding part of the Laurentian plateau; and to the south of this line, extending to the lake shores, is a wide region of moderately elevated, nearly level, and fertile country, of which the Ontario peninsula is a part.

This last region is the richest and most thickly-peopled part of the province, and as such requires some further notice. It is naturally subdivided into two portions — a *lower plain* to the eastward, and an *upper plain* to the westward, there being separated by the line of the Niagara Escarpment, which is the ruling physical feature. This escarpment is formed by the outcropping edge of a thick and massive limestone formation, which slopes gradually away beneath the surface to the south-westward, but is broken off abruptly with a steep face towards the lower plain to the north-eastward. It derives its name from the fact that the limestone outcrop to which it is due, is the same which produces the famous Niagara Falls, where the river, flowing from Lake Erie plunges over it to the lower level of Lake Ontario."[80]

Climatically Ontario presents the continental divergence between very cold winters and very hot summers. Of course the northern parts have a somewhat colder winter,

and a cooler summer; the snowfall is also considerably heavier, and the winter temperature less variable and more steady than in the south along the lakes, where rain often occurs even in mid-winter. Naturally, altitude plays a great rôle in the climate; thus the shores of James Bay which are low, are not as cold as parts of the interior, which are high. The highest temperature at Toronto in July during a period of several years was 90.4 degrees; the lowest 48 degrees; and the mean for the month 68.2 degrees. February, the coldest month had 43.8 degrees as hightest temperature, and 7.9 below zero (zero = 32° frost Fahrenheit; i. e. 7.9° below zero = 39.9 or nearly 40 degrees frost) as lowest, with a monthly mean temperature of 21.2 degrees. Only a book specially devoted to Ontario could hope to find space enough to give an exhaustive sketch of her natural possibilities. The peninsula jutting into the great lakes is a perfect garden, with one farm next to the other; here peaches, grapes, tomatoes and tobacco flourish; all grains of the temperate zone, as well as maize, thrive splendidly. Mixed farming with all its amenities is the rule. Scattered through the peninsula are important industrial towns and important harbours. Toronto, the capital, is the second city of Canada, Ottawa on the Ottawa River in the east of the province is the capital of Canada, and next to Quebec the most beautiful city on the North American continent. Its situation is quite unique. Hamilton, London, and Berlin are busy manufacturing centres. Ontario's woods mines forests, rivers, lakes and transportation facilites give her the possibilities of the development of a great European nation. We can best guage her potentialities if we consider she is twice as large as Germany. Her situation makes her a pivot state on the North American continent, she is the hub in which all spokes of com-

munication would seem to concentrate and converge naturally.

The further west one moves in Canada, the younger the history of her provinces. A little more than a century ago, Ontario was merely a backwoods of Quebec, a hinterland full of fur-trading possibilities. The country was first settled by the so-called United Empire Loyalists who left the United States after the Revolution in order to live under the British flag. They were chiefly of the professional and educated classes, and settled in Ontario, and formed the nucleus of a patriotic British stock, whose influence is still predominant to-day. At the same time this British element proved a counter-balance against the French of Quebec. The number of these Loyalists who originally settled in the pathless forests of Ontario is estimated at about 45,000. And this brave band of pioneers had to literally carve the province out of the virgin forests. "Every acre had to be won by the axe, and the crops grew among the stumps." In 1791 the province was organized with a governor and a legislature. In 1812—14 Ontario bore the brunt of the war on the American continent waged between the States and Great Britain. At this moment the United States was forcibly reminded of what a valuable element she had lost in the adherents to the English throne. After the organisation of Ontario into a separate province it became known as Upper Canada in contradistinction to Lower Canada as Quebec was named. In 1841 the two Canadas were united. With confederation in 1867, the provinces became separated, and Upper and Lower Canada received the names respectively of Ontario and Quebec.

The executive power of the Province is vested in a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Governor-General, and aided by a Council, the members of whom have seats

in the Provincial Legislature, and are responsible to the Legislative Assembly. The seat of Government is at Toronto.

There is only one House, an elected Assembly, consisting of 98 members who are paid. Duration of the Assembly is four years, unless of course sooner dissolved. There is manhood suffrage, limited by residence and citizenship. Sessions are annual. The powers of the Legislature are defined by the British North America Act. The legislative powers of the Province relate to the management and sale of public lands and timber and minerals thereon; administration of justice in the Province; property, and the raising of revenue for provincial purposes; the establishment, maintenance and management of prisons, asylums, charities, education, etc.; tavern licenses, local works and undertakings, and generally all matters of a local nature.

The revenue of the Province is derived from the sale of Crown lands, timber, and minerals, from liquor licenses, succession duties, and other fees, supplemented by a subsidy from the Dominion.

VI. THE PRAIRIE PROVINCES.

(a) MANITOBA.

The three prairie provinces Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta are practically a geographical unit, though the terrace formation described above (p. 30 *et seq.*) does not coincide exactly with the provincial boundaries. Their borders are purely astronomical with the exception of Alberta's western frontier which is formed by the Rockies, and Manitoba's new north-eastern border, which is washed by the waters of Hudson Bay. The northern limit of all three is the 60° of north latitude, above which lie the

vast and almost desolate North West Territories; on their south is the international line dividing Canada from the United States, which is also astronomical, running from the south-east corner of Manitoba at the Lake of the Woods along the 49° of latitude straight along due west to the Pacific.

Up to 1912, Manitoba had an area of 73,956 square miles, and was almost square, with a length of 270 miles on each side, the province has now however an area of 251,832 square miles, and can no longer be termed the 'postage-stamp province'. The old northern boundary line was 12 miles short of the parallel of 53°.

It is chiefly the south-west corner of Manitoba which is of prairie-character, for Manitoba is by no means all flat-land; her north-eastern part is "rocky, hummocky, and a generally-wooded Laurentian plateau". It is characteristic of the prairie provinces that the further west one goes, the further north the forest-line recedes. This line reaches in Alberta as far north as roughly the 54° lat. N. Behind Edmonton the wooded area falls rapidly south along the 114° long., and then bends off slightly to the west to follow the Rockies. The size of the open grass-land area in the three provinces is estimated at 200,000 square miles, or nearly as large as Germany. This is the wheat-growing country par excellence, the 'wheat-bin' of the Empire as it proudly calls itself.

The history of Manitoba begins to evolve itself into some form in 1812 when a number of Scotch colonists from the Hebrides were settled by Lord Selkirk on the banks of the Red River near to where the city of Winnipeg now stands. Manitoba was then a part of the great unorganized west which was the sphere of operation of the Hudson Bay Fur Company, as well as that of rivals who were absorbed afterwards, but not before several sanguinary

quarrels took place between the rival companies (the North-West Company and the Hudson Bay Company).

An extremely interesting question in the prairie provinces is the free distribution of lands to settlers. These blocks of lands are known as homesteads, the settler taking them, as homesteader. In order to make a rational distribution possible, a peculiar system of land surveying and apportioning has been resorted to which will be described below. An advantage of this system is that the traveller on the prairie can immediately find exactly where he is, if he has a map with him, without the aid of a compass.

Practically any one over the age of 18 can receive a free farm in the western provinces. A verbatim reprint of a government publication on the subject will best illustrate the methods and conditions:—

"1. Where are these lands?

ANSWER. West of Lake Superior, north of Minnesota, North Dakota, and Montana, and east of the Rocky Mountains, in the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia.

2. What kind of land is it?

ANSWER. The land is mostly prairie (except in British Columbia), and can be secured free from timber and stones, if desired, the soil being the very best alluvial black loam from one to two feet deep, with a clay subsoil. It is just rolling enough to give it good drainage, and in a great many places there is plenty of timber, and in other places it is underlaid with good coal.

3. If the land is what you say, why is the Government giving it away?

ANSWER. Canada is 250,000 square miles larger than the United States, and the population is only about one-tenth, therefore there is an immense area of vacan

land. No matter how fertile land is, it is no use to any country, unless it is made productive. The Government, knowing that agriculture is the foundation of a progressive country, and that large yields of farm produce insure prosperity in all other branches of business, is doing everything in its power to assist the farmer. It also realizes that it is much better for each man to own his own farm, therefore it gives a free grant of 160 acres to every man, who will reside upon it and cultivate the same.

4. Is it timber or prairie land?

ANSWER. This depends greatly upon location. There is more or less timber along all streams. As you go north or northwest, it is more heavily timbered; taken as a whole, it is about 20 per cent timber.

5. What is the duration of the winter?

ANSWER. Snow begins to fall about the middle of November and in March there is generally very little. Near the Rocky Mountains the snow fall is not as heavy as farther east, but the chinook winds in the West have a temperating influence, and the moisture, afforded by the fall of snow in the East, (which is so necessary to the successful raising of grain), is supplied by these chinook winds. The absence of the snowfall would be regretted by the farmer. Nature has generously provided for every mile of the country, and there is really very little choice with the exception that farther west the climate is somewhat milder.

6. Then as to climate?

ANSWER. The summer days are warm and the nights cool. The fall and spring are most delightful, although it may be said that winter breaks almost into summer, and the latter lasts until October. Winters are pleasant and healthful. There are no pulmonary or other endemic complaints.

7. Is there sufficient rainfall?

ANSWER. Speaking generally, yes; a sufficient supply can be relied upon. The most rain falls in May and June, just when it is most needed.

8. What are the roads like?

ANSWER. Bridges and culverts are built where needed, and roadways are usually graded up; but not gravelled or macadamized. Good travelling in ordinary seasons and every fall and winter. Roads are being improved as the country becomes more settled.

9. What sort of people are settled there, and is English generally spoken?

ANSWER. The settlers comprise Canadians, English; Scotch, Irish, French, and a large number of English-speaking Americans (who are going in, in large numbers), with a splendid lot of Germans and Scandinavians. English is the language of the country, and is spoken everywhere.

10. Is it well to carry a revolver?

ANSWER. It is against the law to do so without a special license, and it is unusual and unnecessary to do so under any ordinary circumstances.

11. Will I have to change my citizenship if, I go to Canada?

ANSWER. An alien, before making entry for free homestead land, must declare his intention of becoming a British subject and must become naturalized before obtaining patent for his land. In the interim he can hold possession, live upon the land, and exercise every right of ownership. If not already a British subject, he must reside three years in the country to become naturalized. To become a British subject, a settler of foreign birth should make application to anyone authorized to administer oaths in a Canadian Court, who will instruct him how to become one. An alien may purchase land from any

of the railway or land companies and hold title deed without changing his citizenship.

12. How about American money?

ANSWER. You can take it with you, and have it changed when you arrive in Canada, or you can get some changed, before you start. American money is taken almost everywhere in Central Canada at its face value.

13. Can a man, who has used his homestead right in the United States take a homestead in Canada?

ANSWER. Yes.

14. Does a U. S. pensioner forfeit his pension by moving to Canada?

ANSWER. No; many such are permanent residents and citizens of Canada and receive their pensions regularly.

15. If a British subject has taken out "citizen papers" in the United States, how does he stand in Canada?

ANSWER. He must be "repatriated", i. e., take out a certificate of naturalization, which can be done after three months' residence in Canada.

16. What grains are raised in Central Canada?

ANSWER. Wheat (winter and spring), oats, barley, flax, speltz, and other small grains.

17. How long does it take wheat to mature?

ANSWER. The average time is from 90 to 110 days. This short time is accounted for by the great amount of sunlight.

18. Can a man raise a crop on the first breaking of his land?

ANSWER. Yes, but it is not regarded as satisfactory to use the land for any other purpose the first year than for raising garden vegetables, or perhaps a crop of flax, as it is necessarily rough on account of the heavy sod not having had time to rot and become workable.

19. How is the country for hay in those districts, where it is necessary to put up hay for use of stock in the winter?

ANSWER. In many parts of the country, there is sufficient wild hay meadow on government or vacant land, which may be rented at a very low rental, if you have not enough on your own farm. The experience of the past few years has proven that timothy and other cultivated grasses can be successfully grown. Brome grass is now cultivated. The yield is from two to four tons per acre and it is said to be more nutritious than timothy. Alfalfa in many places gives successful yields.

20. Do vegetables thrive there, and if so, what kinds are raised?

ANSWER. Yes, potatoes, turnips, carrots, beets, onions, parsnips, cabbages, peas, beans, celery, pumpkins, tomatoes, squash, melons, etc., are unequalled anywhere.

21. Can fruit be raised in Central Canada and what varieties?

ANSWER. Small fruits grow wild. Among those, cultivated are plums, cranberries, strawberries, gooseberries, raspberries, etc. In the Eastern Provinces and British Columbia fruit growing of all kinds is carried on very extensively and successfully.

22. About what time does seeding begin?

ANSWER. As a rule, farmers begin their seeding from the first to the fifteenth of April, sometimes continuing well into May.

23. How is it for stock raising?

ANSWER. The country has no equal. The climate in many parts is such that wild cattle are never housed throughout the winter, and so nutritious are the wild grasses that stock is marketed without having been fed any grain.

24. In what way can I secure land in Central Canada?

ANSWER. By homesteading, pre-empting, veteran scrip, or purchasing from railway or land companies.

25. Can I take up more than 160 acres?

ANSWER. Under the new land regulations, an additional 160 acres in a certain area may be taken up as a pre-emption at a cost of $ 3.00 per acre. "Homestead Regulations".

26. Can I get a map or list of lands, vacant and open to homestead entry?

ANSWER. No; it has been found impracticable to keep a publication of that kind up to date, owing to the frequent changes. An intending settler should decide in a general way, where he will go, and, on reaching Central Canada, should inquire of the Government officials what lands are vacant in that particular locality, finally narrowing down the inquiry to a township or two, diagrams of which, with the vacant lands marked, will be supplied, free, on application to any local agent of Dominion Lands.

27. If a man takes his family there, before he selects a homestead, can be get temporary accommodation?

ANSWER. At a great many places, the Government maintains Immigration halls and gives free temporary accommodation for those desiring such and supplying their own provisions. It is always better for the head of the family, or such member of it as may be entitled to homestead, to select and make entry for lands before moving family.

28. Where must I make my homestead or pre-emption entry?

ANSWER. Land district office, in which selection is made.

29. Can homestead lands be reserved for a minor?

ANSWER. Yes; an agent of Dominion Lands may

reserve a quarter-section for a minor over 17 years of age, until he is 18, if his father, etc., live upon the homestead or upon farming land owned, not less than 80 acres in extent, within 9 miles of reserved section. The minor must make entry in person within one month, after becoming 18 years of age.

30. Can a person borrow money on a homestead before receiving patent?

ANSWER. No; contrary to Dominion Lands Act.

31. Are homesteads available in the Peace River district?

ANSWER. A few townships have been subdivided and thrown open for homesteading.

32. Would the time, I was away working for a neighbour, or on the railway, or other work count as time on my homestead?

ANSWER. Only actual residence on your homestead will count, and you must reside on homestead six months in each of three years.

33. Is it permissible to reside with brother, who has filed on the other half of the section on which I have filed?

ANSWER. A homesteader may reside with father, mother, son, daughter, brother, or sister on farming land, owned solely by him or her, not less than 80 acres, or upon homestead entered for by him or her in the vicinity, which means not more than nine miles from entrant's homestead. Fifty acres of homestead must be brought under cultivation in this case, instead of 30 acres, as is the case when there is direct residence on the homestead.

34. What is the pre-emption area?

ANSWER. By reference to map, you will observe the portion coloured green. Within this area it is possible to secure a homestead of 160 acres free, and an ad-

joining additional 160 acres on payment of three dollars per acre. See Homestead Regulations.

35. How shall I know, where to go when I reach there?

ANSWER. Make a careful study of this pamphlet and decide in a general way on the district in which you wish to settle. Then put yourself in communication with your nearest Canadian Government agent. At Winnipeg, and in the offices of any of the Dominion Lands agents in Central Canada, are maps showing vacant lands. Having decided on the district, where you will make your home, the services of a competent land guide may be secured to assist in locating.

36. What is the best way to get there?

ANSWER. You will find it to your advantage to write or call upon your nearest Canadian Government agent.

37. What about cost of transportation?

ANSWER. On securing a low-rate certificate from a Government agent, reduced rates on Canadian railway from boundary points may be had for both passengers and freight.

38. How much baggage will I be allowed on the Canadian railways?

ANSWER. 150 pounds for each full ticket.

39. How much money must one have to start grain farming and how little can one do with if one goes ranching?

ANSWER. See Chapter "Money Qualifications".

40. How can I procure lands for ranching?

ANSWER. They may be leased from the Government at a low rental. Write for full particulars to Secretary of the Interior, Ottawa, Canada.

41. In those parts, which are better for cattle and sheep than for grain, what does a man do, if he has only 160 acres?

ANSWER. If a settler should desire to go into stock raising and his quarter-section of 160 acres should not prove sufficient to furnish pasture for his stock, he can make application to the Land Commissioner for a lease for grazing lands for a term of twenty-one years, at a very low cost.

42. Where is information to be had about British Columbia?

ANSWER. Apply to Superintendent of Immigration, Ottawa, Ontario, or to the Secretary, Provincial Bureau of Information, Victoria, B. C.

43. Is living expensive?

ANSWER. Sugar, granulated, 14 to 18 lbs. for $ 1, according to fluctuation of market. Tea, 30 to 50c a lb.; coffee, 30 to 45c a lb.; bacon 12½ to 18c; flour, $ 1.75 to $ 2.75 per 98 lbs. Dry goods about Eastern Canada prices. Cotton somewhat dearer than in United States, and woollen goods noticeably cheaper. Stoves and furniture considerably higher than eastern prices, owing to freight charges.

44. Are the taxes high?

ANSWER. No. Having no expensive system of municipal or county organization, taxes are necessarily low. Each quarter-section of land, consisting of 160 acres, owned or occupied, is taxed very low. The only other taxes are for schools. In the locations, where the settlers have formed school districts, the total tax for all purposes on a quarter-section seldom exceeds $ 8 to $ 10 per annum.

45. Does the Government tax him, if he lets his cattle run on Government lands, and will he get into trouble

if his cattle go on land leased by the big ranchers? If they fence their land, is he obliged to fence his also?

ANSWER. The settler is not required to pay a tax for allowing his cattle to run on Government land, but it is advisable to lease land from the Government for haying or grazing purposes, when needed. It seems reasonable that, if a settler's quarter-section is in the vicinity or adjoining a rancher's land, which he has leased and paid for, that he should object to anyone's cattle running over his property, and vice versa. If one fences his land, his adjoining neighbour has to stand a proportionate share of the cost of the fence adjoining his property, or build one-half of it himself, but ranchers seldom fence land for ranching.

46. Where can a settler sell what he raises? Is there any competition amongst buyers, or has he got to sell for anything he can get?

ANSWER. A system of elevators is established by railway companies and others throughout the entire West. Grain is bought at these and forwarded to the great markets in other parts of Canada, the United States, and Europe. There are in Canada many large flour mills, oatmeal mills, and breweries, which use millions of bushels of grain. To the west and north-west of Central Canada lie world-famed mining regions, which are dependent upon the prairies for supplies and will to a great extent continue to be. Beef is bought on the hoof at the home of the farmer or rancher. Buyers scour the country in quest of its products.

47. Where can material for a house and sheds be procured, and about what would it cost? What about fuel? Do people suffer from the cold?

ANSWER. Though there are large tracts of forest in the Canadian West, there are localities, where the quantity

of building timber and material is limited, but this has not proven any drawback, as the Government has made provision for such cases. Should a man settle on a quarter-section, deprived of timber, he can, by making application to the Dominion Lands Agent, obtain a permit to cut on Government lands free of charge the following, viz:

1. 3,000 lineal feet of building timber, measuring no more than 12 inches at the butt, or 9,250 feet board measure. 2. 400 roofing poles. 3. 2,000 fencing rails and 500 fence posts, 7 feet long, and not exceeding five (5) inches in diameter at the small end. 4. 30 cords of dry fuel wood for firewood.

Having all these free of charge, the settler has only the expense of the cutting and hauling to his homestead, which can not cost him a great deal. The principal districts are within easy reach of firewood; the settlers of Alberta and Saskatchewan are particularly favoured, especially along the various streams, from some of which they get all the coal they require, frequently at the cost of handling and hauling it home. No one in the country need suffer from the cold on account of scarcity of fuel.

48. What does lumber cost?

ANSWER. Spruce boards and dimension, about $ 18 per thousand feet; shiplap, $ 20; flooring and siding, $ 23 up, according to quality; cedar shingles, $ 2.50 to $ 3 per thousand. These prices fluctuate.

49. What chance is there for employment, when a man first goes there and isn't working on his land?

ANSWER. There are different industries through the country, outside of farming and ranching, such as sawmills, flour mills, brick-yards, railroad building in the summer, and lumbering in the winter; it is generally easy for a man to find employment at fair wages, when not working

on his land. The chances for employment are good, as a large percentage of those, going in and those already there, farm so much that they must have help, and pay good wages. During the past two seasons from twenty to thirty thousand farm labourers have been brought in each year from the eastern provinces to assist in caring for the large crops. People without capital, not able or not knowing how to work, will find difficulty in getting on in any country; the capable and willing worker is sure to succeed in Central Canada.

50. Can I get employment with a farmer so as to become acquainted with local conditions?

ANSWER. This can be done through the Commissioner of Immigration at Winnipeg immediately on your arrival. He is in a position to offer engagements with well-established farmers. Men experienced in agriculture may except to receive from, $ 20 up per month with board and lodging, engagements, if desired, to extend for twelve months.

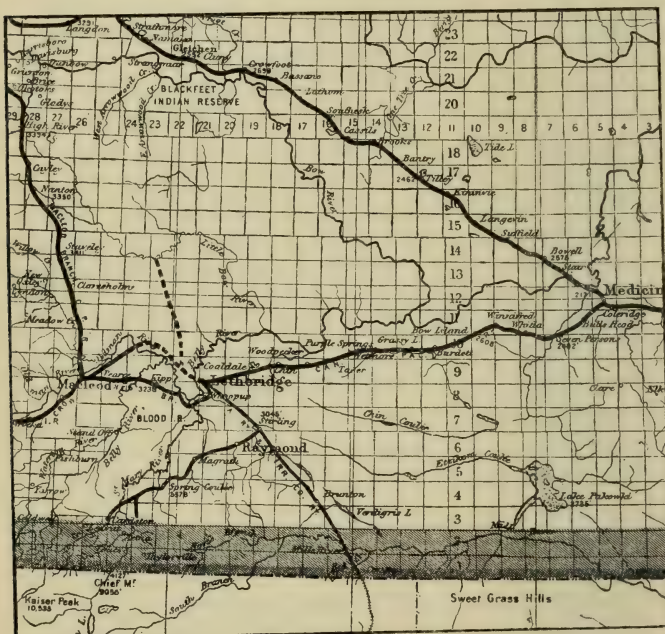
51. But if I have had no experience and simply desire to learn farming in Central Canada before starting on my own account?

ANSWER. Young men and others unacquainted with farm life, who are willing to accept from $ 8 up per month, including board and lodging, will be able to find positions through the Government officers at Winnipeg. Wages are dependent upon experience and qualifications, and no one is expected to work for nothing. After working for a year in this way, the knowledge acquired will be found sufficient to justify you in taking a free grant and farming on your own account.

52. Are there any schools outside the towns?

ANSWER. School districts cannot exceed five miles in length or breadth, and must contain at least four actual

residents, and twelve children between the ages of five and sixteen. In almost every locality, where these conditions exist, schools have sprung up.



(Portion of S. W. Alberta showing Townships.)

53. Is there a State church in Canada; are churches numerous?

ANSWER. No. But the various denominations are well represented and churches are being built rapidly even in the most remote districts.

54. Can water be secured at reasonable depth?

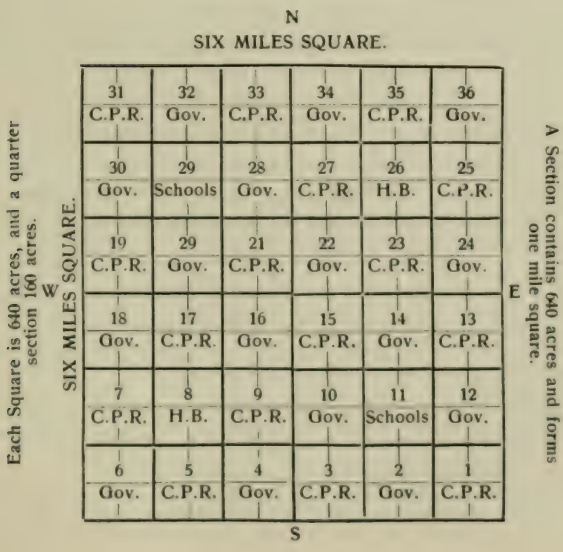
ANSWER. In most places it can be had at from fif-

teen to forty feet, while in other places wells have been sunk to fifty or sixty feet.

Mention was made above to the dividing up of the country into units. The map reproduced below explains the practice at a glance:

Each of the above squares represents a "township", thus the Dominion lands are laid off in quadrilateral townships containing 36 sections, each of 640 ares or one square mile (a township is therefore 6 miles long and broad), subject of course to the deficiency or surplus from the convergence or divergence of meridians, together with allowances for roads in certain cases. The diagram below shows the plan of a township:—

Township Diagram.



Government lands open for homestead (that is for free settlement). — Sections Nos. 2, 4, 6, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 28, 30, 32, 34, 36.

Canadian Pacific Railway Lands for Sale. — Sections Nos. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 25, 27, 31, 33, 35.

School sections. — Sections Nos. 11 and 29 are reserved by Government for school purposes.

Hudson Bay Company's Land for Sale. — Sections Nos. 8 and 26.

It will be seen that each section is divided into 4 quarter-sections; each of these 4 quarter-sections represents an area of 160 acres or one half mile-square; this is a homestead. Each quarter section is named, thus: North-West Quarter, North-East Quarter, South-West Quarter, South-East Quarter.

The lines, bounding a township on the east and west sides are true meridians, and those on the north and south sides are chords of the parallels of latitude, passing through the corners of townships.

The townships number in regular order, northerly from the international boundary or forty-ninth parallel of latitude, and lie in ranges, which are numbered east and west from a certain meridian, styled Principal meridian, and west from other initial meridians, styled the Second, Third .... meridians, according to their order westward from the Principal meridian — this passes about 12 miles west of the city of Winnipeg in approximate longitude 97° 27′ 26″.15 west of Greenwich. The second meridian is placed in longitude 102°, the third in 106° and so on, each initial meridian after the second being 4 degrees west of the preceding one.

It will be noted that each section of a township is numbered from the south-east corner with section 1, 2,

3, 4, 5, 6, till the south-west corner is reached, and then backward to the east, and continuing to the west again, and so on till the last section (number 36) is reached in the north-east corner. Wherever the land is surveyed and blocked out, there are posts, mounds or other signs at the corners of townships, sections and quarter sections bearing the number of the section, township etc. etc. By the aid of these signs and a map, one can discover not only exactly where one is, but how far it is to any given point. Certain sections are not open to homesteading, being reserved to the Government, to railway-companies, and the Hudson's Bay Company: one section in every township is known as school-land and the proceeds of its sale are devoted to school purposes, as well as providing sites.

A homestead is a grant, made under certain conditions, involving residence and improvements upon the land on the part of the homesteader. When such duties are completed, a free patent for the land is issued to the homesteader.

A homestead may be taken up by any person, who is the sole head of a family, or by any male, eighteen years of age or over, who is a British subject, or who declares his intention to become a British subject. A widow having minor children of her own, dependent upon her for support, is permitted to make homestead entry as the sole head of a family.

To acquire a homestead, an applicant must make entry in person. At the time of entry a fee of $ 10 must be paid. The certificate of entry, which is then granted the applicant, gives him authority to enter upon the land and maintain full possession of it, as long as he complies with the homestead requirements.

To earn the patent for a homestead, a person must reside for six months during each of three years. Such

residence, however, need not be commenced before six months after the date, on which entry for the land was secured.

Before being eligible to apply for patent, a homesteader must break (plough up) thirty acres of the homestead, of which twenty acres must be cropped. It is also required that a reasonable proportion of this cultivation must be done during each homestead year. Before being eligible to apply for patent, the homesteader must have a house on the homestead worth at least $ 300.

When a homesteader has completed his residence and cultivation duties, he makes his application for patent before the Agent of Dominion Lands for the district, in which the homestead is situate, or before a sub-agent, authorized to deal with lands in such district. If the duties have been satisfactorily performed, patent issues to the homesteader shortly after, without any further action on his part, and the land thus becomes his absolute property.

In certain districts in Southern Alberta and Saskatchewan, an additional quarter-section (160 acres) may be purchased under certain residence and improvement conditions by a person, who has secured a homestead, but who has not previously obtained a pre-emption under any Dominion Lands Act. Usually entry for homestead and pre-emption is made at the same time. The pre-empted land must adjoin the homestead or be separated therefrom by only a road allowance. As in the case of homesteads, entry must be made in person before the Agent of Dominion Lands, in whose district the land is situate or before a sub-agent, authorized to deal with lands in such district. An entry fee of $ 10 must be paid at the time of entry. Only a person with a homestead entry may enter for a pre-emption.

Duties. In addition to the six months' residence in each of three years, required in connection with homestead, a person who has entered for both homestead and pre-emption must put in six months' residence in each of three other years to secure patent for both. This residence may be put in on either homestead or pre-emption and must be in a habitable house. The cultivation, required in connection with a homestead and pre-emption is eighty acres. This may be done on either the homestead or pre-emption or part of it on each. A reasonable proportion of such cultivation must be done each year. Payment for a pre-emption must be made at the rate of $3.00 per acre as follows: One-third of the purchase price at the end of three years from date of entry. Balance in five equal annual installments with interest at 5 per cent at the end of each year from the date of the pre-emption entry. The procedure for securing patent for pre-emption is similar to the procedure in regard to patent for homestead. There are no fees.

An occupant of a homestead quarter-section having no suitable timber of his own, may obtain on payment of a 25-cent fee a permit to cut 3,000 lineal feet of building timber, 400 roof poles, 500 fence posts, 2,000 fence rails.

Homesteaders and all bona fide settlers, without timber on their own farms, may also obtain permits to cut dry timber for their own use on their farms for fuel and fencing.

Circa 50,000 homesteads were taken up in 1911. Since 1874 about 500,000 farms have been granted to settlers.

(b) SASKATCHEWAN.

In 1905 the Province of Saskatchewan, with that of its sister province Alberta, was created a province of the Dominion with full provincial rights, as laid down in the British North American Act of 1869. These two provinces

were carved out of the old North-West Territory districts of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Athabasca and Alberta. Saskatchewan lies between the 49th and 60th parallels of north latitude, and between the meridians of 102 and 110 degrees west from Greenwich; or, more familiarly, its southern border is the international boundary, the dividing line between Canada and the United States. South of Saskatchewan are the states of North Dakota and Montana; east of it is the province of Manitoba; west of it is the province of Alberta, and on the north and north-east it is bounded by the unorganized North-West Territories.

Its greatest length is 760 miles (from north to south); and its width on the south is 393 miles. At the middle it is 300 miles wide; and at the northern boundary it has a width of 277 miles. The area of this great quadrangle is 250,650 square miles, of which 8,313 square miles are water. Thus Saskatchewan is over 40,000 square miles larger than the German Empire. It had a population, according to the census of 1911, of nearly 500,000.

The province may be divided generally into four well-defined Zones. In the south, and extending as far north as the thriving town of Saskatoon, with the exception of a considerable district north of Qu'Appelle Valley, comprising the Beaver Hills, Touchwood Hills, etc., the country consists of open rolling prairie. North of Saskatoon and extending to the southern edge of the great northern forest, which in Saskatchewan is bounded on the south by a line, passing from Swan River north-westerly through the vicinity of Prince Albert, the country is mixed prairie and woodland, and is splendidly adapted for mixed farming and for stock raising. North of this belt of mixed prairie and woodland lies the great northern forest, the northern edge of which may be described by a line,

drawn from the northern part of Reindeer lake to the southern part of Lake Athabasca. This timbered belt is covered with a forest of spruce, tamarack, jack pine, poplar and birch. The remainder of the country is not thickly wooded.

The southern part of the province consists for the most part of a gently rolling plain, dotted here and there with placid lakes and clumps of trees with occasional open level prairie where the plain, as far as the eye can reach is unbroken by slope or declivity and the gaze is unobstructed by even a single tree.

Portions of the wooded area in the park country have been reserved from settlement by the government in order to provide timber and game preserves. The south-western is perhaps the most suitable part of the province for ranching. In 1901, settlement was confined mostly to a narrow belt of territory, extending about fifty miles west of the boundary of Manitoba, to a strip of about the same width, extending as far west as Moose Jaw, and to settlements adjacent to Prince Albert and the Saskatchewan River above that point. Now settlement is steadily creeping northward, or strictly speaking north-westwards, for the further west one goes in Canada, the further north one finds settlements in the prairie provinces.

Saskatchewan dates as a province from September 1, 1905; but the territory comprised in it has a history coeval with the Hudson's Bay Company, which received its charter in 1670 from Charles II of England. The country, in which the company secured exclusive rights to trade was known as Rupert's Land, in honour of its first governor, Prince Rupert, cousin of King Charles. Previously to that time, explorers sailed into Hudson's Bay and explored part of the coast line; but it was not until the latter half of the 18th century that trading posts,

or forts, were established by the fur traders at points now included in this province.

When Confederation was being planned by the statesmen of the eastern colonies, they recognized that both from a Canadian and from an Imperial point of view it was expedient that the Dominion should be extended to the shores of the Pacific; and one of the matters that early engaged the attention of the first parliament of the newly-formed Dominion was the passing of an address to the Imperial authorities, asking that Rupert's Land and the North-West Territory be united with the Dominion.

As a result of the negotiations, thus begun, the rights of the Hudson's Bay Company in Rupert's Land were purchased by the Dominion, which agreed to pay the Hudson's Bay Company the sum of three hundred thousand pounds. The company was also allowed to retain $^1/_{20}$ of all the land in the fertile belt south of the North-Saskatchewan River, as well as a small area of land around each of their trading posts, amounting in all to 50,000 acres. It was stipulated in addition, that no exceptional taxes should be imposed upon the company, and their trade in furs was in no wise to be restrained.

Pursuant to legislation passed by the parliament of Canada in 1869, and afterwards amended in the following year, an order was made, which proclaimed the North-West Territory and Rupert's Land a part of the Dominion of Canada. After the union, and until autonomy was granted in 1905, the legislative authority over the North-West Territory was exercisable by the parliament of Canada.

The government is vested in a Lieutenant-Governor, aided and advised by an Executive Council of five members. The Province is divided into forty-one electoral districts, each of which is represented in the Legislative Assembly by one member.

(c) ALBERTA.

Alberta, the most westerly of the three prairie provinces, is separated from Saskatchewan by the 110th degree of west longitude, on the south from the United States by the International Boundary, which runs along the 49th degree of north latitude, on the west partly by the Rocky Mountains, and partly by the 120th degree of west longitude from its intersection with the 54th parallel of latitude north; to the north it has the same boundary line as the other prairie provinces, the 60th parallel of latitude. This province has an area of 253,000 square miles, so that it is as large as Germany and Denmark together. The province contains 162,265,600 acres, of this 1,510,400 acres is the estimated area contained in the rivers and lakes, leaving 160,755,200 acres of land. Allowing the odd sixty million acres for the rough land of the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, other mountains and hills, together with other waste places that will not likely be suitable for cultivation, there still remains the large amount of one hundred million acres available for settlement. Up to now about one million acres are cultivated, so that not more than one per cent of the land available for cultivation has been brought under the plough. The population in round numbers was by the census of 1911 375,000, an increase of 301.6 per cent in ten years.

Alberta is part of the great Prince Rupert's Land. For nearly two centuries the company endeavoured successfully to convey the impression to the outside world that the whole region west of the Great Lakes and Hudson's Bay was unfit for the production of anything but fur. Towards the middle of the nineteenth century, however, reports of the climate and vegetation became so favourable that after Confederation in 1867, the Canadian Government prevailed upon the British Government to make a settlement with

the Hudson's Bay Company, with the result that the territory together with the jurisdiction thereof was taken over by the Government of the Dominion of Canada; while the Company accepted a cash bounty retaining as well one-twentieth of the land, and the fur-trading privileges. Since that date every year reveals new possibilities possessed by this territory.

Alberta is named in honour of the visit in 1882 of Lord Lorne and Her Royal Highness Princess Louise Alberta. In 1883 a transcontinental railroad connected the territory with both the east and the west, since which time advancement in every line of industry has been rapid and lasting. In 1905 it was incorporated as a Province and now enjoys the full privileges of self-government.

The first settlement in the Province was made in what is known as the foothill country in the south. The pioneers came by bull team from Montana, and cattle raising was their first occupation. The beginning of another settlement was made at Edmonton, the enterprising pioneers making the long journey overland from Winnipeg in the famous Red River carts. Settlement gradually extended to the south of Edmonton along the trail to Calgary, with the advance of the railway, and more rapidly as the railway was pushed north. Since then settlement has steadily increased until the older parts present an appearance of settled prosperity and comfortableness, which in themselves are convincing evidence of the fertility of the soil, and the opportunities that lie before the newcomer.

The system of government is similar to that of any other British Province. As an integral part of the Dominion of Canada, Alberta is entitled to a representation of seven members in the House of Commons at Ottawa, as well as four members in the Senate. It is the duty of these representatives to look after the interests of the

Province as far they relate to the whole Dominion. For matters of a local nature, such as the building of roads and bridges, the management of the educational system and things directly affecting agriculture, there is the local Legislature at Edmonton, made up of forty-one members. The members for both Houses are elected by the people. With such a system of legislation, based as it is on the principles of British justice, the people of Alberta enjoy all the privileges of self-government.

The climate of Alberta is peculiarly her own. Situated on the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains at an elevation varying from 2,000 to 4,000 feet above the sea level, her climate is noted for a dry atmosphere, a large amount of sunshine, and a small amount of rainfall. Comprising as she does such a large area, there is necessarily within her borders much variety. The southern portions of the Province have long been noted as health resorts. At Banff, west of Calgary, on the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, springs of hot water have been found, which have become well known for their curative qualities. Similar springs have been found on the line of the Grand Trunk Pacific where it crosses the mountains west of Edmonton. In all parts the clear, bracing air is very invigorating, and the beautiful autumn, the mild winter, the cool nights of the summer, no matter how warm the days, and the long hours of sunshine at all times, have justly won for her the appelation of "Sunny Alberta".

Winter sets in generally between the middle of November and the middle of December, and breaks up the latter part of March, or the beginning of April. In the southern portion of the Province the autumns are particularly fine, and the approach of winter is frequently quite delayed, which, with a comparatively early spring, makes

the winter season a very short one. It is true the mercury sometimes drops considerably below zero, but these dips are of comparatively short periods. In all cases the clear air and bright sunshine modify the low temperatures to such an extent that the cold is not felt as much as temperatures ten to fifteen degrees higher in countries where wind and fog prevail, or where the air contains a higher percentage of moisture. It is truly, a delightful climate, and no one thinking of coming to Alberta need hesitate one second on that score. People suffering from pulmonary and respiratory troubles are being recommended to try the favourable climate of "Sunny Alberta".

In the south, and in certain parts of the north, the "chinook" winds play an important rôle. These are warm westerly winds apparently coming through the passes of the mountains. They melt the snow in those regions, over which they exert an influence and make is possible for horses and cattle not only to live but to thrive on the open range all winter.

If the climate of Alberta be contrasted with that of Ontario or the Eastern or Middle States, the air will be found to be drier and more rarified on account of the high altitude, the weather will be found much less changeable, and as a consequence, people are not so liable to take colds. The large amount of sunshine is another distinctive feature of Alberta's climate, and as direct sunshine is the greatest germicide known, it is no wonder Alberta people enjoy the best of health.

Clay covers almost the whole area of Alberta, varying in depth from a few feet at the Rocky Mountains to several hundred feet further east. This is overlaid by a deep, black vegetable mold from a few inches to four and even five feet in thickness, practically free of stones.

The province is well supplied with many streams of

running water, as many brooks and rivers wind their way eastward from the Rocky Mountain slopes. In many places these streams have cut deep coulees or ravines through the clay formation, which gives to the landscape a picturesque appearance.

The great bulk of the land is undulating prairie, with here and there level stretches which extend for many miles. In the extreme south the prairie is particularly level and open. The trees are confined largely to the river valleys, and the foothills of the mountains. Farther north the monotony of the level prairie is broken by clumps of trees, making a park-like country that is very facinating. Some of this timber attains quite a size, and besides making firewood and fence posts supplies the settler with logs for building purposes, while the larger logs cut into excellent lumber.

The spirit of the prairies and the new life springing up there is most happily expressed by the following poem which appeared anonymously in the *Toronto Globe:*

"Put me somewhere west of Selkirk
When the prairie roses bloom,
Where you run clean out o'fences,
And a man has elbow room.
Let me ride upon the pilot
When the first through-train goes out,
Let me hear the settlers welcome it
With joyous ringing shout.
Let me be upon the prairies
When they start a baby town,
When they're living under canvas
While the first mudsills go down;
For it rarely stirs the blood
To see cities in the bud
And to feel a nation growing
From that sticky prairie mud."

VII. BRITISH COLUMBIA.

British Columbia, Canada's Maritime Province of the Pacific Ocean, has an area being variously estimated at from 372,630 to 395,610 square miles. It is a great irregular quadrangle, about 700 miles from north to south, with an average width of about 400 miles, lying between latitudes 49 degrees and 60 degrees north. It is bounded on the south by the Strait of Juan de Fuca, and the States of Washington, Idaho and Montana; on the west by the Pacific Ocean and Southern Alaska; on the north by Yukon and Mackenzie Territories, and on the east by the Province of Alberta. From the 49th degree north, to the 54th degree the eastern boundary follows the axis of the Rocky Mountains, and thence north to the 120th meridian. The Province is traversed from south to north by four principal ranges of mountains — the Rocky and Selkirk ranges on the east, and the Coast and Island ranges on the west. The Rocky Mountain range preserves its continuity, but the Selkirks are broken up into the Purcell, the Selkirk, the Gold and the Cariboo mountains. Between these ranges and the Rockies lies a valley of remarkable length and regularity, extending from the international boundary line along the western base of the Rockies northerly 700 miles. West of these ranges extends a vast plateau or table land with an average elevation of 3,500 feet above sea level, but so worn away and eroded by water courses, that in many parts it presents the appearance of a succession of mountains. In other parts it spreads out into wide plains and rolling ground, dotted with low hills, which constitute fine areas of farming and pasture lands. This interior plateau is bounded on the west by the Coast Range, and on the north by a cross range which gradually merges into the Arctic slope. It

is of this great interior plateau that Professor Macoun says: "The whole of British Columbia, south of 52 degrees, and east of the Coast Range, is a grazing country up to 3,500 feet, and a farming country up to 2,500 feet, where irrigation is possible."

The Coast Range is a series of massive crystalline rocks, averaging 6,000 feet in height, and a mean width of 100 miles, and descends to the Pacific Ocean. The Island Range, supposed to have been submerged in past ages, forms the group of islands of which Vancouver and the Queen Charlotte are the principal.

One of the most noticeable physical features of British Columbia is its position as the watershed of the North Pacific slope. All the great rivers flowing into the Pacific, with the exception of the Colorado, find their sources within its boundaries. The more important of these are: the Columbia (the principal waterway of the State of Washington), which flows through the Province for over 600 miles; the Fraser (750 miles long); the Skeena (300 miles); the Thompson, the Kootenay, the Stikine, the Liard and the Peace. These streams, with their numerous tributaries and branches drain an area equal to about one-tenth of the North American continent. The lake system of British Columbia is extensive and important, furnishing convenient transportation facilities in the interior. The area of lake aggregates 1,560,000 acres.

Many of the smaller streams are not navigable, but these furnish drive-ways to the lumbermen. and supply power for sawmills, and electric plants, and water for irrigation. The water power is practically unlimited, and so widely distributed that no portion of the province need be without cheap motive power for driving all necessary machinery.

In 1537 Cortez discovered California and for nearly

half a century the Spaniards were the only navigators of the North Pàcific. Sir Francis Drake was the first of the British to visit the Pacific Coast, in 1578, when he raided the Spanish settlements, and set up the British flag at Drake's Bay near San Francisco, and took possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth, calling it New Albion. In 1592 Juan de Fuca discovered the Strait which bears his name, and Juan Perez, Quadra, Behring and others visited the coast at intervals until 1778, when Captain James Cook cast anchor in Nootka Sound, while on a mission to discover a north-east passage to the Atlantic. After sailing north to the Arctic Ocean, and naming many sounds, inlets and islands, Cook's ships sailed to the Sandwich Islands, where he was killed in a fight with natives. His vessels, the Resolution and the Discovery, returned to England, however, and the reports of their crews respecting the great opportunities for fur trading, aroused so much attention, that several expeditions were outfitted in England, and in China, and India for the North Pacific trade. For several years merchant adventurers, British, Spanish and Dutch, visited the coast as rival fur traders, but it was only in 1788 that Captain Meares established a permanent settlement on Nootka Sound, where he built a ship called the North West America. The following year a Spanish force under Don Esteran Martinez seized the settlement in the name of his sovereign, confiscated the British ships and imprisoned the crews. These lawless acts nearly caused war between Britain and Spain, but the affair was finally settled by arbitration, Spain abandoning the territory and paying an indemnity of $ 210,000. Subsequently in 1792 and following years Captain George Vancouver made a survey of the coast and established the existence of Vancouver Island, which had been a matter of dispute since the days

of Juan de Fuca. The mainland was for many years "No Man's Land", and it is due to the North-West Fur Company and the Hudson's Bay Company that that vast territory was brought to the notice of the world.

Alexander Mackenzie, who was the first man to cross the continent north of the Mississippi, reached the shore of the Pacific at the mouth of the Bella Coola River in July, 1793.

In 1800 David Thompson, travelling overland from Red River, near the present site of Winnipeg, reached the Bow River, near the present site of Calgary, and subsequently crossed the mountains and discovered the river which bears his name.

In 1849 the Island of Vancouver was granted to the Hudson's Bay Company for a period of ten years. A government was established and a governor sent from England, an assembly was called and held its first meeting at Victoria in August 1856. While Vancouver Island was thus constituted a Crown Colony, the Mainland, known as New Caledonia, remained practically unknown, and inhabited only by Indians and a few fur traders. Gold was discovered on the Fraser River in 1858, and miners began to crowd into the country, making the establishment of some form of government a necessity. Therefore the whole of the Mainland west of the Rocky Mountains was created a Crown Colony under the name of British Columbia.

In 1866 the two colonies were united by Act of the Imperial Parliament, and on July 20th, 1871, British Columbia became a Province of the Dominion of Canada. British Columbia entered Confederation upon the condition that within two years the construction of a railway should be begun which would connect it with the Eastern Provinces. This road is now the Canadian Pacific Railway.

It was completed in 1885, and gave Canada and the Empire a great highway from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

The Provincial Government consists of a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Dominion Government, an Executive Council, or Cabinet of six members (who are elected members of the Legislative Assembly), and a Legislative Assembly of forty-two (including the Cabinet Ministers), elected for the constituencies into which the Province is divided.

Varied climatic conditions prevail in British Columbia. The Japanese current and the moisture-laden winds from the Pacific exercise a moderating influence upon the climate of the coast, and provide a copious rainfall. The westerly winds are arrested in their passage east by the Coast Range, thus creating what is known as the "dry belt" east of those mountains, but the higher currents of air carry the moisture to the loftier peaks of the Selkirks, causing the heavy snowfall which distinguishes that range from its eastern neighbour, the Rockies. Thus, a series of alternate moist and dry belts are formed. The climate of British Columbia, as a whole, presents all the conditions which are met with in European countries lying within the temperate zone, the cradle of the greatest nations of the world, and is, therefore, a climate well adapted to the development of the human race under the most favourable conditions.

The climate of Vancouver Island, and the coast generally, corresponds very closely with that of England; the summers are fine and warm with much bright sunshine, and severe frost scarcely ever occurs in winter. On the Mainland similar conditions prevail till the higher levels are reached, when the winters are cooler. At Agassiz, on the Lower Fraser, the average mean temperature of January is 33 degrees, and of July 64 degrees;

the lowest temperature on record at this point is —13 degrees, and the highest 97 degrees. There are no summer frosts, and the annual rainfall is 67 inches, 95 per cent of which falls during the autumn and winter.

To the eastward of the Coast Range, in Yale and West Kootenay, the climate is quite different. The summers are warmer, the winters colder and the rainfall rather light — bright, dry weather being the rule. The winter cold is, however, scarcely ever severe, and the hottest days of summer are made pleasant from the fact that the air is dry and the nights are cool. Further north, in the undeveloped parts of the province, the winters are more severe.

The great diversity of climate and the unique climatic conditions existing in the mountains, valleys and along the coast, to which, if is added the scenic beauty of the landscape, give to life in British Columbia an indescribable charm. There is scarcely a farm house in all the valley regions that does not look out upon great ranges of majestic mountains, more or less distant. The floral beauty of the uncultivated lands and the wonderfully variegated landscape are a source of constant delight. Each one of the numerous valleys appeals to the observer with some special charm of scenic beauty, and presents distinct qualities of soil and climate, bounded by mountains stored with precious and economic minerals, watered by lakes and streams of crystalline purity, and clothed with a wealth of vegetation which demonstrates the universal fertility. These impress one with the great extent of the province and its inexhaustible resources. And this great natural wealth is so evenly and prodigally distributed that there is no room for envy or rivalry between one district and another, each is equally endowed, and its people firmly convinced that their's is the "bonanza" belt, unequalled by anything on earth.

The whole of the coast of British Columbia, as well as that part of Alaska which decends half way down the western length of the province, is flanked with innumerable islands, chief of which is Vancouver, upon the southern end of which Victoria, the capital, is situated. Vancouver Island is situated on the south-western seaboard of British Columbia, separated from the mainland by a narrow channel. The general direction of the island is north-west and south-east; it is 280 miles long by an average of 50 miles wide. There are no great stretches of level land, the general features being mountains and valleys, with a general main ridge forming the backbone.

The eastern shore, bordering as it does an inland sea, presents a comparatively unbroken shore line; while the west coast, lashed by the fury of the Pacific Ocean, has been cut up by a number of long arms or fiords, penetrating deeply into the land. From this peculiarity it is astonishing to find that, while the island is only 280 miles long, the coast-line of the western shore has a length of 1,300 miles, exclusive of islands.

HISTORY.

THE history of Canada begins in the east, and works its way slowly westward. For all practical purposes the pre-Columbian discoveries on the North American coast have no value at all. Indeed, they seem according to the light of modern investigation, to have been somewhat mythical. There are in fact no evidences that the Norsemen were on the continent, nor have Runic inscriptions been found. Their course is supposed to have been by way of Ireland to Greenland, and from Greenland to Labrador. Prescott[31] remarks that "it is singular that Columbus in his visit to Ireland in 1477 should not have learned anything of the Scandinavian voyages to the northern shores of America in the 10th and following centuries". But, be that as it may, countless historians of repute claim that in the year 1000, Leif, the son of Eric the Red, found the rocky shores of Labrador and Newfoundland, and called them Helluland or "slate land", and touching Nova Scotia, he named it Markland, or "Land of the Woods". Both at any rate singularly appropriate names. Sailing still further south he came to a land where vines grew wild, and called it Vinland. This is supposed to apply to the New England coast between Boston and New York. Some writers claim that there was even a thriving trade in timber from the Canadian coasts to Greenland. But we have no light on the subject, or trace of early discoveries before Columbus, though there is

ground to believe that Basque fishermen had carried on their trade off the coast of Newfoundland before Columbus discovered America. Cousin of Dieppe for one, claimed to have discovered America in 1488.

Canada was discovered only five years after Columbus had touched the West Indian Islands by John Cabot on the 24th of June 1497. Cabot, like Columbus, was a Genoese. But as he sailed in an English ship from Bristol, manned by English sailors, and under the patronage of Henry VII, his discovery of Canada for England is a strange coincidence on the face of the fact thas that country was destined one day to be conquered by England. Cabot went out, not only to discover, but to occupy and possess the northern part of America that was unclaimed by other powers. His action seems however to have been interpreted as an impingement on Portuguese rights under Pope Alexander the Sixth's Bull.

He first touched Newfoundland; and Cabot Strait between that island and Cape Breton Island perpetuates his memory. From Newfoundland he went to the coast of Labrador. The historical facts about the Cabots — for there were besides the father three sons (Sebastian Lewis & Sancius) — are somewhat uncertain. It would be well to remember that the English were the first to actually land on the North American continent; a significant and prophetic fact this. "When the forest wilderness of Cape Breton listened to the voices ot Cabot's little company, it was the first faint whisper of the mighty flood of English speech which was destined to overflow the continent, to the shores of another ocean, far-distant and undreamed of for many years" [32].

The curtain again drops on Canada for nearly forty years, till it is lifted by Jacques Cartier, a Breton sailor from St. Malo, who was sent out by Brian Chabot, the High

Admiral of France. Cartier sailed from St. Malo in April 1534, reached Newfoundland, passed through the Straits of Belle Isle, and entered the St. Lawrence Gulf, and striking a little too far south, ran into Chaleur Bay which lies between the Gaspé peninsula and the north-east of New Brunswick. He describes this landfall as "hotter than the country of Spain, and the fairest that can possibly be found". It is doubtful whether an inhabitant of Gaspé would recognize his country under these flattering terms.

The reports he brought back to France encouraged Francis I. to send him out again in May 1535. This time he entered the St. Lawrence, which he called Grande fleuve de Hochelaga, and sailed down it till he reached what is now the city of Quebec, and then the Indian village of Stadaconé, and pushed on to Hochelega, the site of the present town of Montreal. This was discovery and enterprise with a vengence. Cartier stayed for the winter in Quebec, and a terrible winter he spent; several of his companions perishing of exposure and hunger. He christened the country La Nouvelle France, and thus laid the foundation of that great empire. On returning, he took back with him an Indian chief by name Donnaconna with some of his countrymen. The result of this satisfactory voyage was that the French now decided on colonizing Canada, and Cartier was sent out a third time to winter again near Quebec — with the same bitter experience and hardships. He was followed by the Sieur De Roberval in 1542, who planted a settlement at Cap Rouge (near Quebec), he having being created viceroy of New France. This settlement turned out a miserable failure. And both Cartier and Roberval were back in France in 1544. We have little data as to their doings in Canada.

"The attempts to trace back Canada to the days of Jacques Cartier is without warrant" writes Kingsford[38] the great Canadian historian. "He sailed up the river with many other navigators, and only that he left the record of his voyage, no trace of his presence would remain . . . Cartier can be assigned the rank of the first discoverer, who placed on record the geography of the Saint Lawrence . . . Whatever are the merits of Jacques Cartier as a navigator, no place can be claimed for him in the continuous history of colonization and settlement of the shores of the Saint Lawrence."

After Cartier is silence. The curtain descends again for over half a century. True, towards the end of this period, the Marquis de la Roche took out fifty convicts as settlers in 1598, and left them on that "Ocean terror", Sable Island, 100 miles off the coast of Nova Scotia — instead of on the mainland — Five years later only eleven were found alive. Those are the bare facts, but material enough for a most tragic story. Nor does it require much imagination to re-construct that tragedy, if we remember that this bleak island, wind and wave swept, is only one mile broad, and twenty miles long. One or two other feeble attempts at colonisation were made on the St. Lawrence between 1600 and 1603, but were quite unsuccessful. A certain amount of intermittent trade, chiefly in furs, had also been carried on by private traders along the river.

In 1603 the curtain is rung up again — to stay up this time — by Samuel de Champlain, the "Father of Canada", who arrived in the St. Lawrence in the May of that year, having been sent out from France to explore the country. It is a strange coincidence, that those who were first destined to play a great rôle in Canadian history should also bear her initial letter in their own

names: Cabot, Chabot, Cartier, Champlain*. From the time, Champlain entered the St. Lawrence the story of his life may be said to be the history of Canada. "For the first sixty years of French occupation, the life of Champlain is the history of Canada. The first thirty years are marked by the results which he accomplished, and those which his writings shew he desired accomplished: the last twenty-five years have the stamp of failure which arose from the non-observance of his policy."[84] After some years of exploration, both in Acadia, and of the St. Lawrence, Champlain founded the city of Quebec in 1608. From this date we have a permanent and continual course of Canadian history, which long remained centered around the ancient city from which point Champlain undertook journeys of discoveries, and expeditions against the Indians.

Perviously to this, the French gained in 1603 a footing in Acadia, as the Maritime Provinces were then called. The first permanent settlement being made in 1605 on the Annapolis basin under the name of Port Royal. Here too, for three and a half years Champlain, together with the Baron de Poutrincourt was the moving spirit, till he transferred his activity permanently to Quebec.

Owing to lack of geographical knowledge and general unclearness of charters, the French and English spheres overlapped, and the colonists at Jamestown (founded in 1607) in Virginia, a thousand miles further south, sent up an expedition in 1613 to destroy Port Royal under the pretext, that it lay within the Virginia grant. As though these two miserable settlements with their few scores of inhabitants were in one another's way in a country that could comfortably hold a population number-

* In addition we may add: Carleton, Charlevoix, de Chastes, Chauvin, Colbert and de Courcelles.

ing hundreds of millions. The French however, still retained a foothold in Acadia. Herein lay the seeds of endless future discord between the English and the French, which ended in the latter being finally driven from the field, and as compensation, the former being turned out of the New England colonies by their own countrymen, assisted by the French in the American War of Independence.

On the strength of King James' grant, which defined the whole of the country up to Gaspé, as belonging to northern Virginia, the English made repeated attempts to settle in Nova Scotia, till the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye conceded the whole of Acadia (and Canada) to France, leaving the southern boundary line very obscure as to where is actually lay. And for long years, indeed, till France lost Canada, a sanguinary warfare was carried on along the border between the French and English, who each tried to push the other further back. The result was a desolate tract between the two countries of which there are still traces; burnt settlements, and murdered settlers, butchered by the Indians under French guidance. All this has left a stain on that period of Canadian history, and indeed finally was the chief cause of the expulsion of the French from Canada. If however, as far as Indian border-raids were concerned, the French behaviour was inexcusable — particularly as the Indians were incited by Jesuit missionaries — yet the New Englanders took their share in raiding Acadia by sea, and encrouching on the French fisheries. In the meanwhile the few French grantees and colonists in Acadia made progress impossible by continual internicine strife. This was put a stop to in 1654 by Cromwell's sending an expedition to Acadia, which seized the whole country. But Acadia was a shuttle-cock, beaten backwards and forwards by English and French battledores, and so it was

again restored to France in 1667 by the Treaty of Breda, and became anew a thorn in the flesh of the New Englanders.

When in 1689 William III was crowned King of England, war once more broke out with France, and Acadia came in for her share, by having her chief ports plundered. But it was not till 1710 that the English, under General Nicholson, who led an expedition from Boston, finally conquered Acadia. It was ceded to England by the Treaty of Utrecht signed in 1713. The French however retained Cape Breton Island at the northern end of Nova Scotia, and erected Louisbourg the greatest fortress of America. This fortress was taken in 1745 by the New Englanders, who recognized that, as long as it was in the hands of France she had a base of operations from where she could not only prevent ingress into the St. Lawrence, but could harass the New England coast. But by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, England returned Louisbourg and Cape Breton Island to France, and the French re-entered their fortress in 1749. This led to a countermove on the part of the English, who founded Halifax the same year, as a rival to the mighty fortress in the north. The rage of the New England colonists, who had fitted out, and carried out the siege-expedition, may well be imagined. This was an early example of the difficulties besetting a large Empire that often has to sacrifice local for Imperial interests.

After the founding of Halifax, the English governor of Acadia called upon the Acadians to take the oath of loyalty to the English crown. Incited by their priests, they refused. As however England had been in possession of the country over thirty years, it was high time that the Acadians, now numbering about 13,000, should acknowledge her sovereignty. Their refusal led to the great

Acadian tragedy: the forcible expulsion of the French Acadians, which has been sung by Longfellow in his epic poem *Evangeline, A Tale of Acadie* of which Kingsford remarked, that he must have mistaken *Acadia* for *Arcadia.*

In the opening lines he writes:

"This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts that beneath it
Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the huntsman?
Where is the thatch-roofed village, the home of Acadian farmers,—
Men whose lives glided on like rivers that water the woodlands,
Darkened by shadows of earth, but reflecting an image of heaven?
Waste are those pleasant farms, and the farmers forever departed!
Scattered like dust and leaves, when the mighty blast of October
Seize them, and whirl them aloft, and sprinkle them far o'er the ocean.
Naught but tradition remains of the beautiful village of Grand-Pré!"

Briefly told the episode is as follows. The Acadians refusing to take the oath of allegiance, the English decided on deporting them, as they were a continual element of danger to English settlements. Previously to this decision, about 6,000 Acadians had been induced by the French to leave Nova Scotia for the mainland. Of a population of 13,000 souls in 1749, only some 9,000 thus remained in 1753. Of this number some 6,000 in all were forcibly removed on ships, and scattered along the English-American coast; some went to Louisiana, others found their way to England, some ultimately returned. Hard as the step was, it was necessary. "The misery which befell the Acadians was the result of not using force at the right time, and of the evil potency of priestcraft."[35] It was chiefly due to the machinations of the French priests that

the ignorant Acadian peasants were led to resist English authority, which had been long-suffering and tolerant; whereas the Acadians had harassed English settlers with Indians, fire, and sword. This step made Nova Scotia completely English in fact, as well as in theory. And so the first step to an English Canada begins to loom up prophetically.

"The history of Acadia is henceforth very simple. The Micmac Indians continued their depredations and murders until the complete triumph of the English arms left them no support. A peace was concluded in 1761, and proved to be final. Soon after, settlers began to come in to take up the vacated land, and the successful revolt of the southern colonies (the United States) sent a large number of expatriated loyalists into the province . . . The civil government went through the usual stages of colonial evolution, until at last the province attained the status of a self-governing colony. Cape Breton is 1784 was erected into a separate government, and so remained until 1820, when it was reunited to Nova Scotia.

The province of New Brunswick at the time of the peace of 1763 was an absolute wilderness. Although it was, in reality, included in the cession of Acadia at Utrecht, the French clung to it to the last, though they never colonized it in any effective way."[86]

In 1783 3,000 loyalists left from New York to settle at the mouth of the St. John River, and found a new home — thus the province of New Brunswick was really created as an outcome of the American revolution, as was Ontario too. The next year New Brunswick was made a separate province.

Prince Edward Island, or Isle Saint Jean remained in a backward state till the middle of the 18th century, owing to the fact that the country was covered with

forests, and the French preferred the easy method of farming on the fertile marsh lands of western Nova Scotia to clearing the dense forests with which the island was originally covered. The population however greatly increased owing to the establishment of Louisbourg. After the English took possession, the population sank from about four to two thousand souls, some leaving for the mainland, others being deported. It became a separate province in 1769, and entered confederation somewhat late in 1873.

Important as the history of Acadia is, it plays but a small rôle in the French period of Canadian history, as compared to Quebec, and we must now retrace our steps back to where we left Champlain.

After Champlain had established his little colony on the banks of the St. Lawrence, he found that he was continually attacked by the Indians, namely the Five Nation confederation or Iroquois, the most blood-thirsty, cruel and crafty of the North American natives. They lived chiefly along the southern shores of Lake Ontario, and held the Niagara peninsula, the key to the west. By means of the great Lakes and Lake Champlain, they were easily in a position to make descents on the unwarry settlers. At the time of the arrival of the French, they were occupied in blotting out the other Indian races who really outnumbered them. It thus became the policy of the French, at first to ally themselves with the oppressed Indian tribes, chief of which were the Algonquins who were spread over the East of Canada. The Iroquois may be said to have been the Romans of North America; not only were they great warriors, but great diplomatists. "They nearly destroyed the French settlements in Canada; and all through the contest between Great Britain and France in America, they were a force to be reckoned

with by either side. Their alliance was sought, their enmity was dreaded. Their strength was due to the geographical position which they held, and to their national characteristics; while their policy was influenced by the differing conditions of the white people with whom they had to deal." [37] The struggle with the Iroquois evolved itself into a struggle for the possession of a water-way to carry on fur-trade to the west.

The year after Quebec was founded, Champlain started off with his allies the Hurons and Algonquins on an expedition against the Iroquois. He passed from the St. Lawrence up the Richelieu, and into the lake he gave his name to. On its banks he met them and won a victory.

France found in Canada an excellend field for mission work, and sent out devoted missionaries, who, seeking the martyr's crown, followed the fur-traders along the western water-ways, and penetrated as far west as Lake Superior; exploration and proselytism went hand in hand. An important event in the history of Canada was the arrival of the Jesuit missionaries in 1625. And much of early culture, exploration, and good understanding with the Indians was due to their influence.

War having broken out between France and England, the English determined to strike a blow at Canada, and if possible take that country. A fleet sailed over the Atlantic and entered the St. Lawrence in July 1628. Landing parties burnt various small trade settlements below Quebec, and an advance was being made on that city, when a French fleet entered the St. Lawrence and the English turned to meet them. The English fleet consisted of but three men-of-war, the French of eighteen transports and freight ships. Kirke, the English commander won the battle, and captured seventeen French ships on July

18th. He then returned to England, but recrossed the Atlantic again in 1629 with a strong fleet. This time he captured Quebec (on the 22 July); small credit to him though, as the French were completely starved out. This was the first time that the flag of England floated over the battlements of Quebec. Champlain was taken back to England, from where he returned to France. But although with the fall of Quebec, Canada had passed into English hands, it was restored by the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, signed on March 29, 1632, and Champlain returned the next year. He died on Christmas Day, 1635 at Quebec in his sixty-ninth year. "New France owed all to him. Amid every form of difficulty and intrigue, in Europe and in America, among white men and among red, he had held resolutely to his purpose. His life was pure, his aims were high, his judgement sound, and his foresight great. He lived for the country in which he was born and for that in which he died; but 'the whole earth is the sepulchre of famous men', and not in France or Canada alone is lasting honour paid to his name." [38]

During Champlain's life, two other important settlements were made, Three Rivers, between Montreal and Quebec, and Montreal (1642). The priest who spoke at the foundation of Montreal spoke with not unprophetic words, if we consider he stood in an unknown land on the banks of a mighty river that flowed through an impenetrable forest haunted by blood-thirsty savages — prophetic we may say in the face of the fact that on the spot he blessed, now stands a smiling city of half-a-million inhabitants; one of the fairest cities in the world. "You are" said the priest "a grain of mustard-seed that shall rise and grow till its branches overshadow the earth. You are few but, your work is the work of God. His smile is on you, and your children shall fill the

land."[39] "Religious enthusiasts founded Montreal, and the foundation of Montreal was a challenge to the Iroquois. Always the enemies of France, she Five Nations saw in the settlement a new menace to their power."[40]

Canada progressed very slowly. In 1663 she had only 2,500 inhabitants all told, in fact, up to that date, the history of the country is chiefly one of savage warfare attempts to hold a precarious footing on the banks of the St. Lawrence, and missionary enterprise. The Roman Catholics in France were quite comfortably off were they were, the Protestants were refused admission; priests and nuns, fur-traders and a few adventurous and bankrupt noblemen were not likely to increase the population "Martyrs and virgins the Roman Catholic Church sent out to Canada, but it did not send out men and women."

After 1663 the government of Canada became completely vested in the Crown, whereas previously to this a great chartered trading company, known as the One Hundred Associates, had the chief influence in the administration; indeed trading companies from the very start had been vested with most of the administrative rights that were taken over by the crown in 1663. So New France was a Royal French Province for just one hundred years till 1763, when it passed into the hands of Great Britain.

The form of government was simple, there was a Governor, a Council of from seven to twelve members including the Bishop, and an Intendant. There could be no question of popular rights, merely patriarchal discipline and administration by the representatives of the French Crown. Matters were made worse by friction between the chosen few who governed. "Canada gasping under the Iroquois tomahawk, might, one would suppose, have thought the cup of tribulation full, and, sated with in-

evitable woe, have sought consolation from the wrath without in a holy calm within. Not so, however; for while the heathen raged at the door, discord rioted at the hearthstone. Her domestic quarrels were wonderful in number, diversity and bitterness. There was the standing quarrel of Montreal and Quebec, the quarrels of priests with the governor, and of the Governor with the Intendant, besides ceaseless wranglings of rival traders and rival peculators." [41]

The year 1672 marks an important date in Canadian history; it saw the arrival of Count Frontenac as governor. After Champlain, he was the greatest of all Frenchmen in Canada; and he had an advantage over Champlain in as far as he was later in the field, and held the governorship for nigh twenty years (1672—1682 and 1689—1698). Under his rule he laid the foundations to a possibly prosperous and great Canada. He promoted exploration, settlement, and commerce, and gained the Indians over to his side. At the same time his relations with the Jesuits, the Council, and the Intendant Duchesnay were not smooth. By constructing in 1673 Fort Frontenac — the present town of Kingston — on the eastern end of Lake Ontario, he pushed French settlement well to the west. And this date may be said to be the modest beginning of the widening out of Canada. And with the widening out, and growth of Canada, rivalry begins to spring up between the English colonies to the south, and the French to the north, as the advance of both was bound to lead to points of friction. And in 1689 Frontenac sent French raiding parties down into New England, and New York, and spread havoc among the outlying English settlements. Had he lived a little longer he would have completely won over the Iroquois from the English to the French side; as it was he had rid Canada from the murdering

savage to a great extend, and won the respect and admiration of the Iroquois. He died on November 28, 1698 at Quebec in his seventy-eighth year. "Après tout, la Nouvelle France, lui devoit tout ce qu'elle étoit à sa mort, et l'on s'aperçut bientôt du grand vuide qu'il y laissoit."[42] His successor Callières was enabled to make peace with the Iroquois in 1701. By establishing a post at Duluth in 1686, the French were in a position to prevent the English carrying on fur-trade with the west; their settlement on the Niagara peninsula proved a second effective check.

Irritation between Canada and the New England colonies was growing from year to year. Till finally, in 1690, Massachusetts sent out an expedition under William Phipps to take Quebec. On the 16th October he appeared before that city with thirty-four ships and 2,200 men, half of whom were landed, but beaten off by Frontenac. The undertaking ended in failure. Another attack — the third — was made on the devoted fortress of Quebec in 1711. This time it was in the shape of a fleet from England with 5,000 English, and 1,500 Massachusetts soldiers.

By land some 3,000 troops, including 800 Indians were to advance on Montreal via Lake Champlain and the Richelieu River. But nearly all the fleet was wrecked on the northern coast of the St. Lawrence on the Egg Islands, about twenty miles to the north of Point de Monts. One thousand lives were lost in this terrible catastrophe. The advancing troops in the south were recalled. The New Englanders returned to Boston, the English Fleet went home, and the whole expedition ended as a fiasco of the most ignominious character.

In the meanwhile the French were making plans to stop the advance of the English, not only northward

which was natural, but westward, which was unnatural, in as far as the English, being on what is now the Atlantic coast of the United States, would in time push their settlements into the western hinterland. As we have read, French exploration lay along the waterways. When it had extended to the southern end of Lake Michigan and the western end of Lake Superior it seemed at first inspection, as though the limits had been reached. But this was not so. Connection to the greatest North American river was to be had by leaving Lake Michigan where Chicago now stands, and portaging over to one of the branches of the Illinois River. To sail down the Illinois, and reach the Mississippi, was but a step further. Another connection could be made from the south shore of Lake Erie by passing over an eight mile portage to the upper reaches of the Allegheny River which is a northern tributary of the Ohio, which again is the chief eastern feeder of the Mississippi. The French Jesuit priest Marquette, and a layman missionary Joliet, were the first to discover the Mississippi in 1673. But it was La Salle, the greatest of all French explorers on Canadian and American waterways, who first sailed down the 'Father of Waters' to the Gulf of Mexico in 1682, and claimed that stream for France. And it was in La Salle's fertile mind, that the idea of a New France extending from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to that of Mexico sprang up. By La Salle's discovery the French were enabled to draw a line parallel with the Atlantic behind the English colonies — their plan was to keep the English from advancing west. It was great in its conception, but could not be carried out by means of a few forts separated by hundreds of miles along the Ohio and Mississippi. The population of New France was too small for that.

With the outbreak of the Seven Years' War in 1756

England and France were fighting again; but previous to this they had already started hostilities on the American continent. The point of friction began by the English advancing along the valley of the Ohio, which meant that a wedge would be driven between Canada and Louisiana, as the country round the Mississippi was called. The English made a determined effort in 1755 to advance along the Ohio, and take Fort Duquesne, which stood on the site of the present city of Pittsburg, a further attack was to be made on Canada along the Hudson and Lake Champlain route, another move was towards fort Niagara at the eastern end of the Niagara peninsula. Two regiments were sent from England under General Braddock, and France, in order to check the English scheme, sent out 3,000 men to Canada under Baron Dieskau, a German serving in the French army. Near Fort Duquesne the English were attacked by ambushed Indians and French on the 9th July, and were driven back in confusion, and completely routed. Braddock was mortally wounded. Of about 1500 men, the English lost nearly two-thirds. And yet the French force was less than 1000. The English northern advance on Lake Champlain also led them into an ambush, but they extricated themselves, and defeated the French who had followed up the ambush with an attack. Dieskau was taken prisoner. The number of French and English troops were respectively about 3,500. The expedition to Niagara was abandoned. If we draw the balance between French and English gains, we shall find that it was decidedly in favour of the French.

But the year 1755 was only a preluding skirmish of the next few years. The conditions on the north American continent between French and English had become insupportable. On the other hand, it was clear that Canada with her small population of about 65,000 could not

resist the New England colonies with their united population of perhaps one million and a quarter, if these would but unite against the common enemy, a step they could not however agree to take. It thus became clear that the mother-country would have to make an attempt to rid the North American colonies of her troublesome neighbour. In doing so, she freed them for action against herself, and the gain of Canada, was the foundation to the loss of the American colonies.

The war on the American continent was a 'side-show' of the Seven Years War. The first definite step was a victory for the French under the Marquis de Montcalm who beat the English in their westernmost outpost, Oswego, on the south eastern end of Lake Ontario. This was in July of 1756. Montcalm advanced with about 3,000 men, and captured the Oswego forts and 1,600 prisoners. By this brilliant action, the French had now gained complete mastery of the great lakes again. The next year the wily and valiant Montcalm was on the war-path once more, and made a descent down the Richelieu through Lake Champlain to the southern end of Lake George, which forms a continuation of Lake Champlain. Here, in the heart of the English colony was situated Fort William Henry, which was defended by about 2,400 men. Montcalm had between 7,000 and 8,000 men. For four days he besieged it — and it is due to the English to state that they made a brave defence. But on the 9th August they were forced to surrender. This was followed by a massacre of the English troops who were retreating to Fort Edward, a few miles due south-east on the Hudson. Montcalm's Indians having got out of hand, fell upon them, and murdered about 50, and captured 400 of them. This episode is also related in Fennimore Cooper's *Last of the Mohicans*. Parenthetically

it may be remarked here that, as Cooper lived in the heart of what was once the Five Nations territory, his works are not only interesting as fiction, but offer a valuable source of local colour for those studying the period.

"At the end of 1756, the English had been beaten at all points. They had failed to attack Louisbourg, they had been driven from Lake George, the country of the Five Nation Indians was nearly cut off, all hold on the rivers and the lakes was gone. The outlook was dark in the extreme: it is always darkest before dawn, and as a matter of fact, dawn had already begun; for William Pitt, who had been dismissed from office in April, was recalled by the unanimous voice of the people of England before the end of June, and, leaving to the incompetent Duke of Newcastle the name of Prime Minister, controlled, as Secretary of State and Leader of the House of Commons, the soldiers, the sailors, the subsidies and the foreign policy of his country."[43] Pitt was in fact the founder of British Imperialism.

It was quite clear to Pitt that any successful move on Canada proper must be preceded by the capture of Louisbourg, only then could an advance be safely made down the St. Lawrence on Quebec, the key of Canada, without danger of being cut off from the Ocean by a French fleet using Louisbourg as its base. Simultaneously he sent out a fleet to Halifax, which was to attack Louisbourg, blockaded French ports, keeping France from sending fleets across the Atlantic, and encouraged the North American colonies to raise troops. He sent out 12,000 soldiers on the Louisbourg expedition. Troops were marched to Lake George and Fort Duquesne, and there was a general investment of Canada. On July the 27th Louisbourg fell, and with it 6,000 French soldiers and sailors into English hands; the French fleet was destroyed

in the harbour. Within two years Louisbourg was no more; it was dismantled and razed to the ground, and Halifax remained mistress of the Nova Scotian shores. This successful siege was carried out under General Amherst and Admiral Boscawen. Louisbourg was defended by the Chevalier de Drucour, a brave and excellent commander, who stood no chance against the superior English forces. But the English advance on Fort Ticonderoga at the northern end of Lake George was not successful; while Louisbourg was being besieged, Abercromby, the English commander, was beaten back by Montcalm, who only had 4,000 men as against Abercromby's 15,000. The English loss was 2,000 men, and Lord Howe, one of her most promissing young generals. The advance on Fort Dequesne was in so far a success as the French deserted it, and thus left the valley of the Ohio in English hands. On the site of the burnt fort the English erected a new one: Fort Pitt, which afterwards became the city of Pittsburg in honour of William Pitt.

The next year saw a continuation of the English investment of Canada, which had perforce to be interrupted during the winter, and which could hardly be claimed as having been a complete success in 1758. This time the French were driven back in the late summer to the north along the Lake Champlain water line, but the English did not follow up their advantage.

Meantime General Wolfe was sent out by Pitt with 9,000 men, to attack the almost impregnable fortress of Quebec, which was defended by some 16,000 soldiers under Montcalm. The task seemed nearly a hopeless one. He arrived off Quebec at the end of June. But it was not till the 13th of September that Wolfe could successfully land his men, and reach the heights above Quebec

by means of steep path, and assemble his troops on the Plains of Abraham. The army, which had landed, numbered about 4,000. Great was the surprise of the French to see within a mile of Quebec an army, which seemed to have sprung out of the ground over night. Montcalm hurried with 5,000 men to oppose it. The French were driven back by the advancing English, and at the final charge Wolfe was killed. He was only thirty-three years old, and like Nelson lived just long enough to hear he had gained the day. Montcalm too was shot while retreating to Quebec. Thus the two brave leaders fell. A monument is erected to their united memory not far from where they fell, bearing the inscription:

Mortem Virtus Communem
Famam Historia
Monumentum Posteritas
Dedit.

It was not however till the 18th, that the city of Quebec capitulated to the English, and with her capitulation Canada was not immediately or completely won. Montreal had not yet fallen, and was occupied by the French general Levis, a man of extraordinary military abilities. Having an army of some 10,000 men, he determined to advance in the spring of 1760 upon the English in Quebec. Opposed to him were a little fewer than 5,000 Englishmen. The English and French met on April 28th on the same plateau, and like the French in the previous year, the English were forced to retreat into Quebec. Some 3,000 men were the total losses of both armies. It would have gone hard with the besieged, if an English fleet had not arrived in May to relieve them. The English now advanced from three sides on Montreal — from Quebec, up Lake Champlain, and on Lake Ontario. No

fewer than 17,000 British were thus concentrated round Montreal, which was only defended by 2,400 Frenchmen, and on September 8th Montreal capitulated, and with it the whole of Canada. This put an end to the war in North America. By the Peace of Paris, which was signed on the 10th of February 1763, the whole of New France passed into British hands. The great French transmaritime empire was no more. The population of Canada at the time of the conquest was under 75,000.

With the advent of British rule came a new life for the Canadians. England was of the opinion that she would soon assimilate her French Canadian subjects: she has failed to do so to this day. On the contrary, they have flourished to such an extent that there are some 2,000,000 French in Canada to-day who are descendants of the original stock; for there has never been any French immigration into Canada worth mentioning. But, although her aims were towards assimilation, they were also towards the welfare and freedom of her French subjects. Under British rule they were to attain to political liberties and privileges they had not enjoyed under French rule. "No fact can be more plain, than the desire to establish law and order, to render justice between man and man, and to make the Canadians satisfied with the new order of things. To the French Canadian accustomed to government *corvées,* the harsh treatment of impressment, compelled to take the field without pay, merely receiving his rations and living under the absolute control of those in authority, without one political privelege, the change must have been extreme. Haldimand in a letter to Amherst, says that nothing the Canadians dreaded so much, as the return of the French, as they desired to cultivate their farms peacefully and happily."[44]

At first English settlement was sparse, and consisted

chiefly of disbanded soldiers, a few traders and government officials. Within a year or so after the conquest the English in Canada did not number more than 500.

By the passing of the Quebec Act in 1774, the French-Canadians obtained their *Magna Charta*. It extended the bounds of the Province from Labrador to the Mississippi, from the Ohio to the watershed of Hudson Bay. It established the right of the French to the observance of the Roman Catholic religion without civil disability — which was a concession, the Roman Catholics did not even fully enjoy at that period in England — and confirmed the tithes to the clergy, exempting, however, all Protestants from their payment. It restored the French Civil Code, and established the English administration of law in criminal cases. Supreme authority was vested in the Governor and a Council of from 17 to 23 members, the latter being nominated by the Crown, and consisting for the most part of persons of British birth, which was not very fair in the face of the fact that the British were in such a minority.

Canada was not long to enjoy the peace she obtained by the British conquest. The revolting American colonists wanted the Canadians to join them; for this purpose they sent up an address to Canada in October 1774 to persuade the Canadians to join their fortunes with theirs. This was followed up in 1775 by an invasion from Vermont on Tinconderoga and Crown Point on the Champlain waterways, and an advance on Quebec and Montreal; the latter town being taken by the Americans on November 13th. Siege was laid to Quebec, but Carleton the able governor of Canada, knew that if he could but hold out till the spring, relief would come from England up the St. Lawrence. The siege lasted through the winter of 75 and spring of 76, till the long-expected reinforcements

arrived in May, and the Americans raised the siege and retired in some confusion. The American War of Independence closed on the 19th October 1781, with the surrender of the British commander, Cornwallis, at Yorktown, Virginia, and the loss to Great Britain of what is now the United States.

By the treaty of peace signed at Versailles, September 3rd 1783, Canada was, despoiled of the magnificent region lying between the Mississippi and the Ohio, and was divided from the new nation designated "the United States of America" by the Great Lakes, the St. Lawrence, the 49th parallel of north latitude, and the highlands dividing the waters falling into the Atlantic from those emptying themselves into the St. Croix River.

It has often been maintained that during the American Revolution, and the attacks made on Canada, that the new French-Canadian subjects were faithful to England. This is not true. In the first place, they had too recently become subjects of the British crown, and in the second place, their sympathies were with America, owing partly to the effect that the American secessionists were aided by a French fleet. "Writers on the history of Canada have too often allowed their sympathies to get the better of their desire for historical accuracy in dealing with the attitude of the *habitants* during the perilous days of 1775—1776. To say that the French-Canadians loyally surported the authorities in their difficult task of defending the province is to assert what is abundantly reputed by indisputable evidence. Carelton's earliest efforts to enrol militiamen in the purely French settlements were failures: his commissioners were treated with insolence in several instances. In one settlement the women received them with a well-directed volley of stones."[45] One thing however is true, and that is the French priests did their best

to keep their parishioners at least neutral, for they recognized that the only possibility of a prosperous future for their race and religion lay in remaining British subjects. With the loss of her old American colonies, England had at any rate a free hand to devote more attention to Canada; above all she had learnt a lesson which would prevent her repeating her errors in the new colony.

One very important effect the American revolution did have on Canada, and that was a large addition to her British population; indeed we may say, the creation of the British nucleus population as an offset to the French-Canadians. Throughout the war, a considerable number of the American colonists remained loyal to the Mother Country. At the close of the war it became painfully evident that there would be no peace for them within the boundaries of the United States. Indeed, during the war they were persecuted, and many were hanged. They found their property confiscated, their families ostracized and even their lives menaced. In this emergency the British Parliament came to their aid. A sum exceeding three million pounds was voted for the assistance of these United Empire Loyalists, as they called themselves. Transport ships were provided for their conveyance to Canada, and arrangements made for their domiciliation in the seaboard provinces, and in what is now the Province of Ontario. It is estimated that 45,000 persons were thus aided to find refuge in the British colonies, where they proved of the utmost value in opening up and settling the country.

The Loyalists found a wilderness where the fruitful Province of Ontario now smiles. The European population was under 2,000, and these dwelt chiefly in the vicinity of the fortified posts on the St. Lawrence, the Niagara and St. Clair Rivers. On the other hand, the population

of Lower Canada (the present Province of Quebec) was about 120,000, of whom nearly all were French. In order, therefore, that the Western region might be developed, and populated with English-speaking settlers, the Home Government offered generous grants of land to those who would settle there, besides assistance in the way of seed, stock and farming implements; under these inducements, the wilderness of woods soon began to make way for smiling farms, thriving settlements and waving fields of grain.

In 1791, Canada was divided into Upper and Lower Canada, each province receiving a separate legislature; the dividing line being the Ottawa, Montreal and Abitibi rivers. For a time matters went on with the quantum of friction inseparable from the working of newly organized governments and administrative units, till a new danger began to loom large on the horizon in the form of a war between Great Britain and the United States which broke out on June 18, 1812. American troops crossed the frontier at various points, but an armistice kept matters in abayance till the battle of Queenstown on the Niagara River (October 13th) cost Upper Canada the loss of Isaac Brock, her acting Governor, and Commander of her troops General Sir Isaac Brock with a force only half the size of that of the Americans "crossed the boundary and captured the whole of the first invading army numbering two thousand five hundred men, together with its general at Detroit. Hurrying back to command the small force of regulars and United Empire loyalist militia gathered at Niagara to repel a more serious attack, he fell dead in the glorious victory of Queenstown Heights, where the enemy were hurled back across the river with the loss of one thousand men." Like Wolfe he was victorious in death. Indeed, there is in a way much simi-

laritude between the Battle of Queenstown Heights and that of the Plains of Abraham. Canada was really unprepared for the conflict, and had not more than 6,000 troops at her disposal to defend a frontier of 1,500 miles. Her entire population did not exceed 300,000 of which some 75,000 only where in Upper Canada, whereas that of the United States was about eight millions. In 1813 the American Government made greater efforts, and the British met with some reverses. The enemy obtained command of Lake Erie, and burned the town of Newark and the farmhouses around, raided York the capital of the province, now Toronto, and burned the public buildings, but did not hold the place. The net result of the year's operations was, that the Americans retained only Amherstburg in Canada, while the British held Fort Niagara, in the state of New York. The following year, there was very severe fighting on the Niagara frontier, and attempts at invasion all along the border; the bloody battle of Lundy's Lane was fought, but the final result at the close of the three years of the war was, that not an acre of Canadian territory was in the possession of the invaders, excepting the village of Amherstburg on the Detroit River. The British on the contrary, held Michillimackinac in Michigan, Fort Niagara in the state of New York, and nearly the whole of the state of Maine. Peace was signed on December 24, 1814. "The brunt of the conflict had been borne by the militia of Upper Canada . . . The war was not popular in the northern states of the American Union, and was decided on by a very small majority in Congress. President Madison and his advisers were under a singular hallucination as to the feelings and wishes of the people of Canada. Great Britain had the world in arms against her; and the Canadian militia had to bear a very heavy share of the defence, and bore it bravely

and cheerfully . . . Congress conceived that the American flag had only to be shown to be followed, and that the British authority and influence was confined to the barracks and military posts in the Canadas. The Canadian militia, however, uniformly behaved well. The only partisans and well-wishers to the Americans were a few discontented emigrants from England, who were dissatisfied without any reason, and who, probably, as no form of government could have pleased them, would have been equally troublesome under that of the United States. There were fortunately but very few settlers of this description. The great majority of the Upper Canadians were happy, loyal, and contented." [46]

"The Americans" writes Sir C. P. Lucas in his history of *The Canadian War of 1812,* (Oxford, 1906) "were, in fact, now to reap the harvest which they themselves had sown. Their treatment of the Loyalists had been at once unjust and ungenerous. It had converted them into the bitterest and most determined foes; and, with the record of the past still fresh in the minds of men, to offer freedom from oppression to the United Empire Loyalists of Upper Canada, while invading their country, was simply to add insult to injury . . . On the American side as on the British, it was a halfhearted war. The only party to it who were in the main quite heart-whole, fighting few against many in defence of their home, were the people of Canada . . . The war of 1812 determined that North America should not exclusively belong to the American Republic, that Great Britain should keep her place on the continent, but that she should keep it through this new community already on the high-road to legislative independence."

It may be mentioned here that this time the French-Canadians remained loyal in spirit and action to the

British, French militia regiments were raised, and came forward cheerfully, though their services were not much made use of owing to the chief seat of the war remaining concentrated around the Great Lakes.

In 1822 a union between the two Canadas was proposed, but came to naught owing to opposition on the part of the French-Canadians. In the meantime emigrants began to come to Canada, and between the years 1819 and 1825, no fewer than 68,000 arrived, the majority of whom went to Ontario. But a slow increase of British population in Quebec gradually led to friction between the two races. The leader of the French-Canadians was Papineau, who had been Speaker of the Lower Canadian House of Assembly. He aimed actually at establishing a French republic on the banks of the St. Lawrence. The very thought set Upper Canada in a flame of indignation, and it seemed as though a civil-war was imminent. Indeed, rebellion broke out in November 1837, beginning with a riot in Montreal. Several ring-leaders were arrested, but Papineau escaped to the United States. The insurrection soon collapsed before the advance of troops. Parallel with this movement in Lower Canada, went a similar one in Upper Canada, induced by a general dissatisfaction with the government. Houses were burnt, and a futile attack made on Toronto. The leader Mackenzie, like Papineau, escaped to the United States.

The dual rebellion in the Canadas, though only a flash in the pan, led the home government to suspend the constitutions for three years, and send out Lord Durham in 1838 as a special commissioner to enquire into matters, and find out wherein the cause of discontent lay. What it really amounted to was a struggle for responsible government. His report to the home government is one of the most famous and important of all Canadian

historical documents. The report pointed out the necessity of more responsible government, and the means of harmonious working between the executive and legislative assemblies, also the union of the two Canadas, and foreshadowed the Confederation of 1867.

The Union Act came into force in 1841. It provided that there should be one Legislative Council, and one Legislative Assembly, in which each province should be equally represented. The Council was composed of twenty life members, appointed by the Crown; the Assembly, of eighty four members, elected by the people. The Executive Council or Cabinet, comprised eight members, and was responsible to the Legislature. It was presided over by the Governor-General, who of course held his appointment from the Crown. The control of all public revenues was vested in the representatives of the people. In June, 1841, the first united Parliament met at Kingston. Three years later, the seat of government was changed to Montreal, and on the destruction of the Parliament Buildings by a mob in 1849, it went to Toronto; remained there till 1851, when it went to Quebec for a few years, becoming, in fact, an ambulatory legislature, resting for a term in the capital of Canada West, and for another term in the capital of Canada East.

With the growth of Upper Canada the inadequateness of its representation in parliament became more and more a matter of discontent. In 1861 she had 300,000 more inhabitants than Lower Canada. The best way out of the difficulty was a confederation of the British North American provinces. But between the suggestion, and the final step, much water was to run under the bridges. The idea was to link up Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, Ontario and the great west, then known as the North-West Territories. 'For the

sake of securing peace to ourselves and to our posterity we must make ourselves powerful. The great security for peace is to convince the world of our strength by being united.' One chief feature of the confederation scheme was the recognition of the principle of representation by population. After much haggling and opposition on the part of the Maritime Provinces, the British North America Act was passed in London on July 1, 1867. Newfoundland was invited to join, but refused; Manitoba became a province in 1870, British Columbia entered the Dominion confederation in 1871, Prince Edward Island joined in 1873, the Provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta were carved out of the North West Territories in 1905. But practically with the enactment of the bill, a united Canada extending from Atlantic to Pacific was erected. She was no longer a string of independent provinces, but a united nation. The unnatural union of Upper and Lower Canada was done away with, they became respectively the Province of Quebec and Ontario. A leading factor was the creation of railways, without which an effective union could not have been maintained. The opening of the Canadian Pacific Railway from ocean to ocean in 1886, set as it were the roof on the confederation edifice. It would indeed be hard to over-rate the national value of the great railway company to Canada. It linked her up in practice, whereas the Confederation Act only linked her up in theory as it were. It forced trade and traffic east and west in a national direction, whereas the natural tendency was to force it from north to south. We must remember that Canada is a microcosm of the United States, and by reason of this, easily made into a 'back-yard' of her southern sister, unless the artificial east-west direction of her trade and nationality is maintained. New York is duplicated in small in Montreal; St. Louis in Toronto; Pittsburg in

Hamilton; Chicago in Winnipeg; San Francisco in Vancouver etc. Ottawa was made the capital of the Dominion.

How slowly settlement moved west in Canada, may be seen by the fact that as late as 1857 there was only a population of some 6000 — chiefly French Canadians — in what is now the Province of Manitoba. While between this settlement and the Pacific, only wandering Indians and fur traders lived their nomadic life, the country on the slopes of the Pacific became the scene of colonisation owing to the finding of Gold. British Columbia was the name given to the westernmost province, and it started its existence in 1858 as a Crown colony. Vancouver, which had been a separate colony till 1866, was then united to British Columbia, and became an integral part of that province. With the purchase of the Hudson Bay Company's rights in western Canada for £ 300,000 pounds by the central government in 1870, and the entrance in 1871 of British Columbia into confederation, the British flag waved from shore to shore.

APPENDIX.

(The numbers refer to those in the text.)

1) *Candide*, Chap. XXIII.

2) Hugh Gray: *Letters from Canada*, London 1809, pp. 31/32.

3) S. E. Dawson: *The Saint Lawrence Basin*, London 1905, pp. 158, 187.

4) C. P. Lucas: *A Historical Geography of the British Colonies* (Vol. V, *Canada*, Part I), Oxford 1901, p. 7 *et seq.*

5) Lucas op. cit. p. 10.

6) Francis Parkman: *Pioneers of France in the New World*, Boston 1884, pp. 268 69.

7) William H. Prescott: *History of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella*, London (8th ed.) 1854, Vol. II p. 435.

8) Parkman: *The Jesuits in North America*, Boston 1884, pp. 328 29.

9) Parkman: *Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.*, 7th ed., Boston 1880, p. 395.

10) J. D. Rogers: *Historical Geography of the British Colonies*, Oxford 1907 (Lucas Collection), Part I, p. 10.

11) *vide* Parkman: *The Old Régime in Canada* Boston 1874, Cap. XXI (pp. 400 1).

12) Justin McCarthay: *A History of Our Own Times*, Vol. IV, Cap. LV, p. 184 *et seq.*

13) William Kingsford: *The History of Canada*, London 1892, Vol. V, p. 216.

14) John W. Hill: Chapter: *Imperialism in Canadian Politics* (in *The Empire and the Century*, by C. S. Goldman, London 1905, p. 405).

15) *Times,* 30th April 1912.

16) George R. Parkin: *Sir John A. Macdonald (The Makers of Canada),* Toronto 1908, p. 100.

17) J. S. Ewart in *Canadian Magazine,* Toronto, May, 1911.

18) Wilfred Campbell: *Canada,* London 1907, pp. 3/4.

19) This area comprises part of the St. Lawrence, Niagara, Detroit and St. Clair rivers.

20) *Problems of Greater Britain* by Sir Charles Dilke, London, 5th edition, 1890, pp. 20/21.

21) *Fifth Census of Canada* 1911.

22) Sir C. P. Lucas: *A Historical Geography of the British Colonies;* Vol. V, *Canada,* Part I, Oxford 1901, p. 52.

23) *ib.* p. 53.

24) George M. Dawson: *Geography of the British Colonies (British North America),* London 1908, pp. 8/9.

25) F. T. Shutt: *Western Prairie Soils,* Ottawa 1910, pp. 7/8.

26) Much of the information contained in this section is taken verbatim from the pamphlet on Nova Scotia issued annually by direction of the Minister of the Interior, Ottawa.

27) Much of the information contained in this section is taken verbatim from the pamphlet *Prince Edward Island, Canada's Garden Province, Its Climate and Resources,* published annually under the direction of the Minister of the Interior, Ottawa.

28) This chapter embodies several pages from James Hannay's *New Brunswick, Its Resources and Advantages.* Crown Land Department, Fredericton 1902. The other sections on the provinces have been largely based on verbatim extracts from government publications.

29) S. E. Dawson: *The Saint Lawrence Basin,* London 1905, p. XXVIII.

30) G. M. Dawson *op. cit. sup.* pp. 110/11/12.

31) *History of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella,* Vol. II, p. 104.

32) S. E. Dawson: *The Saint Lawrence Basin,* London 1905, pp. 33/34.

33) *History of Canada,* London 1891, Vol. IV, p. 501.

34) Kingsford *op. cit.* Vol. I, p. 138.

35) C. P. Lucas: *Hist. Canada,* Vol. I, p. 228.

36) S. E. Dawson: *North Am.,* p. 132/33.

37) C. P. Lucas: *op. cit. sup.* Vol. I, p. 57.

38) C. P. Lucas: *op. cit. sup.* Vol. I, p. 78.

39) Francis Parkman: *The Jesuits in North America,* Boston 1884, p. 209.

40) Lucas: *op. cit. sup.* Vol. I, p. 82.

41) Parkman: *The Old Régime in Canada,* Boston 1874, p. 83.

42) Kingsford: *Hist. Can.,* Vol. V, p. 330, quoting Charlevoix.

43) Lucas: *op. cit. sup.* Vol. I, p. 268.

44) Kingsford: *op. cit.* Vol. IV, p. 448.

45) W. B. Munro: *The History of North America,* Vol. XI, *Canada,* Philadelphia 1905, p. 271.

46) S. E. Dawson: *N. Am.,* p. 331/32.

ANNOTATIONS.

[Figures printed in heavy type refer to the number of the pages, those in lighter type to the line to which the annotation belongs.]

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1. 6) *saw*, a saying; a proverb. — 11) Gottfried Seume, German poet and author, born 29. January 1763 in Poserna, died 13. June 1810 in Teplitz. He spent three years in Canada (1780—83), having been forced into service by a Hessian press-gang, and placed in the ranks of the troops in the pay of England. He describes his life in Canada in »*Mein Leben*«. — 15) *La Nouvelle France*, the name given by France to her American empire. — 19) Rudyard Kipling was born in India (Bombay) on Dec. 30, 1865. After being educated in England, he returned to India as a journalist, and became famous by his *Plain Tales from the Hills*. His best known books are: *The Light that Failed*, *The Naulahka*, *The Jungle Book*, *Stalky and Co.* and *Kim*. He received the Noble Prize in 1907.

2. 7) *the* Indians of Canada number roughly about 100,000; this figure is practically stationary. — 25) *the United States* etc. Columbus discovered America in 1492. — 29) Sir C. P. Lucas, b. 7. Aug. 1853, Assistant Under Secretary of State, Head of Dominion Department, Colonial office 1897—1911. Eminent authority and author on Canadian history etc.

3. 17) Florida, the southernmost state of the United States, has an area of 54,240 sq. m. It was purchased

from Spain in 1819. The chief industry is agriculture and fruit raising. The population is (1910) 752,619; the capital Tallahassee. — 34) Jamestown, at mouth of James River (Virginia), the first permanent settlement by the English in what is now the United States (1607). It was (1619) the meeting-place of the first legislative assembly in the New World. — *the* Hudson, River of New York, rising in the Adrionack Mts. Its total length is 300 m. It bears the title of 'Rhine of America', owing to the beauty of its scenery.

4. 2) Francis Parkman (1823--93), distinguished American historian who specialised in French-Canadian history. His chief works are: *The Conspiracy of Pontiac; Pioneers of France in the New World; The Jesuits in N. A., Montcalm and Wolfe.* — 8) Acadia, the old name of what are now the Provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. — 10) Champlain, Samuel de (1567—1635), the first French governor of Canada. His *Mémoires* were collected as *Œuvres de Champlain* (6 vols. 1870). — *fleur-de-lis*, the royal emblem of France. — 11) Quebec, the capital city of the Province of Quebec. The population, which is chiefly French, consists of nearly 80,000 souls (1913). — 15) *tutelage*, state of being under a guardian. — 26) Huguenots, a name applied to the Protestants of France in the 16th and 17th centuries. — 28) Puritans, a name given in contempt to Dissenters in the reign of Elizabeth, and in those of her two successors. The term comes from the Puritans having affected a rigid purity in religious matters. — *the* New England States, the name applied to the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachussetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, in the N.E. of the U.S.A.

6. 17) Drake, Sir Francis, (1540—96), English naval commander, distinguished for his piratical raids on the Spanish colonies. He is supposed to have been the first to introduce potatoes and tobacco into England. — *brass plates,* brass or lead plates bearing the coat-of-arms of the country to which discoverers or colonists belonged who claimed possession. These emblems were either buried, or fastened onto trees as a sign that possession of the country had been taken. — *bumper,* a cup, goblet, or glass swelled or filled with liquor, till it is ready to flow over the brim.

7. 5) Hudson's Bay Company, an ancient fur-trading company trading in North America; was founded in 1670 by Prince Rupert. The company still continues its activity, and many of its stores have developed into great modern emporiums — *e. g.* Winnipeg and Calgary. — 10) *to foster,* to encourage. — 23) Governor Carleton (Thomas), born in 1736, died Feb. 2, 1817. Was appointed lieutenant-governor of New Brunswick, and in 1784 governor and commander-in-chief of Nova Scotia and Canada.

8. 8) Treaty of Paris was signed on the 10th February 1763 between France and Spain on the one hand, and Great Britain and Portugal on the other. By it, France ceased to take part in the Seven Years War. — 10) *Confederation in 1867,* by this the provinces of Canada were joined under a central federal government. — 11) Canadian Pacific Railway, one of the greatest railway companies in the world. It connects the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of Canada, and was opened to traffic in 1885. It has (1913) a total rail-mileage of 16,945 miles, and owns enormous tracts of land, steamships, hotels, shops, etc. etc. — 19) Imperialism is

a political doctrine in Great Britain which promulgates the linking up of the whole of the British over-sea countries and colonies into a single empire: Greater Britain, with a central Parliament in London, in which all the different parts of the Empire should be represented. One of the chief factors in Imperialism, is the introduction of a tariff-ring including the whole Empire, and discriminating in favour of its component parts. Various other points of this policy are: a united fleet, conscription, and abolition of custom-tariffs within the Empire.

9. 2) *a national instead etc....*, the natural trend of trade would be north to south and *vice versa.* — 5) Buffalo, city (founded 1801) in state of New York on the S. shore of Lake Erie. It is an important lake port and railway centre (pop. ca. 500,000 1913). — Chicago, important city and Lake Michigan port in Illinois (pop. ca. 2,250,000). — Minneapolis, city in Minnesota, U.S.A. (pop. 300,000). — 13) Taft, W. H. ex-president of U.S. (b. Sept. 15, 1857). Elected President in 1908; left office in March 1913. — 14) Mr Roosevelt, Theodore (b. 1858); President of U.S. 1901—9. — 25) George R. Parkin, well-known Canadian writer.

10. 31) *the expulsion of East Indians from British Columbia* has taken place at various times owing to a dislike of the British Columbian population to Orientals, who work cheaper than whites. — *the independent commercial law etc.*, was the so-called Reciprocity Treaty with the United States, which provided for a mutual reduction of tariffs on a number of articles.

11. 3) *'backyard'*, here, an economically dependent country. — 16) *proscribed,* to put out of the protection

of the law. — 18) ***megalomania***, insanity of self-exaltation, passion for big things.

13. 5) Point Pelée juts out into the S.W. end of Lake Erie. — 7) Grant Land, or Ellesmere Island, the northernmost Island of British North America. — Mackenzie, Sir Alexander (1775—1820), Scotch explorer of Arctic America, discovered the Mackenzie River. He was the first to cross the Rockies and reach the Pacific coast overland. — Franklin, Sir John (1786 to 1847), English Arctic explorer. He made an extensive journey of exploration through northern Canada in the years 1819—20—21—22. His great voyage of discovery to find the North-West Passage (1847) cost him and his followers their life. — Hearne, Samuel (1745 to 1792), traveller, born in London, served in the navy for some years. Then entered the service of the Hudson Bay Co. On July 15, 1771 he began a survey of the Coppermine River, which he reached after a journey of 1300 miles on foot. Later on he became governor of the Hudson Bay post Prince of Wales's Fort. He died in London.

14. 8) *tripe de roche*, an edible lichen, *Gyrophora cylindrica*, a native of Arctic America. When explorers in the barren grounds of Canada are reduced to the last resource, they boil this moss, which they scrape from the rocks. — *breech-loader*, a gun loaded at the breech — the thick end — not through muzzle. — 32) Alaska, consists of the N.W. extremity of N. America W. of 141° W. long., and a strip of coast extending S. to 56° N. lat., together with the adjacent islands. Its area is about 590,000 sq. m., and its general coastline measures 4,000 m.; inlets and islands included, the coast is 18,000 m. long. It was purchased by the United States

from Russia in 1867 for £ 1,440,000. It's boundary became a serious bone of contention between Canada and the U. S. The population (1910) is 65,000; the capital is Juneau. — 33) Hawaii, or Sandwich Islands form a territory of the U. S., and consist of a chain of islands in the North Pacific Ocean, between 18° 54′ to 22° 15′ N. lat. and 154° 50′—160° 30′ W. long. Their area in square miles is: 191,909, with a population of nearly 7,000. Honolulu, the capital is about 2,000 miles from San Francisco.

15. 15) *tundra,* mossy and often marshy plains in Russia and Canada where tree-growth is no longer possible owing to rigour of climate. — 32) Newfoundland, is the oldest English colony, being taken in the name of Queen Elizabeth in 1583. It has an area of 42,750 sq. miles, and 238,670 (1911) inhabitants. It is the 12th largest island of the world, and is situated at the entrance of the St. Lawrence Gulf, which it nearly blocks up. — Vancouver, the largest town of British Columbia; incorporated in 1886, has now (1912), with suburbs, 160,500 inhabitants. It is an important port from where steamers run to practically all parts of the world.

16. 1) Hudson Strait, leads due west from the Atlantic into Hudson Bay. It is 450 m. long, with an average width of 100 m. Its tides rise very high (30 to 40 feet), and flow with great swiftness — thus the strait never freezes over. — 9) Queen Charlotte islands lie off the British Columbian coast, just south of the Alaskan boundary line. They are 150 miles north of Vancouver Island, and consist of 150 islands. — 29) St. Pierre and Miquelon have an area of 93 sq. m. The islands are barren and rocky, but an

important centre of cod fisheries. The capital is St. Pierre. Pop. ca. 7,000.

17. 21) Strait of Belle Isle, the shallow N. outlet of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, between Labrador and Newfoundland; used by vessels in the summer season only. — 33) Cabot Strait divides Newfoundland from Cape Breton Island.

18. 6) Bay of Fundy, separates the south-western part of Nova Scotia from the opposite shore of New Brunswick.

19. 4) Churchill Harbour, a Hudson Bay trading fort, and a future port of Hudson Bay; the same remarks apply to Port Nelson. — 16) *portage*, is land interval between two rivers or lakes over which goods and canoes are carried. The term is derived from the French *porter*. — 23) La Salle, René, Robert, Sieur de (1643—87), French explorer, born at Rouen; he explored the great lakes, the Ohio and Mississippi and took possession of the country in the name of France. — 26) Lake Michigan, one of the great lakes of N. America, lies almost due south to north. Area 22,400 sq. m. Length, 300 m.; mean breadth, 75 m.; mean depth over 870 ft. — 27) Lake Winnebago, a small lake to the west of Lake Michigan.

20. 1) Illinois, a large tributary of the Mississippi, flowing in from the N.E. Length 500 m. — 23) Cartier, Jacques (1491—1557), discoverer of Canada, born in St. Malo in France. — Wolfe, James (1727 to 1759), British general, led the English expedition against Quebec, outside of which city he was killed on the 13th Sept. 1759 at the moment of victory. With the capture of Quebec the fate of France was sealed in

Canada. — Montcalm, Louis Joseph, Marquis de (1712—59), French general. He fell mortally wounded in the battle against General Wolfe. — 25) Iroquois, a generic name given to the five tribes of Indians known as the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas. They originally lived to the south of the shores of Lake Ontario, between the Hudson and the Niagara rivers.

21. 1) Montreal, largest city in Canada, situated on St. Lawrence River. Population (1913), including suburbs, 620,000. — 3) Three Rivers, town in Prov. Quebec. Pop. (1913) 14,500. Situated on mouth of St. Maurice River, at the head of tide water of St. Lawrence. — 4) Quebec, the capital of the province of Q., an old French city founded by Camplain in 1608. Port of entry of Atlantic steamers in summer, and landing place of immigrants. One of the most picturesque cities in N. Am. Population (1913) 80,000. — 5) Kingston, town in Ontario. The Canadian Royal Military College is here. Population (1913) 20,000. — 11) Welland Canal, is 26 m. long. — 12) Niagara Falls, in the Niagara River, are split by an island about half-way between lakes Erie and Ontario. One side of the falls is American (the eastern), the other is Canadian. The crest line of the American Fall is 1,080 feet and is almost straight. The Canadian or Horseshoe Fall, which carries 4/5 of the water, has a crest of 3,010 feet. It is calculated that 7,000 tons of water fall every second. The Canadian side is 158 feet high, the American 167.

22. 23) Detroit River, about 32 m. long, connects Lake St. Clair with Lake Erie.

23. 1) Fort Chipewyan, on N.W. end of Lake Athabasca, an old Hudson Bay trading fort. — 27) Fort

Ray, a trading post on Great Slave L. — 28) Forts Resolution and Smith, likewise Hudson Bay trading posts.

25. 7) Winnipeg, the capital of Manitoba, and most important city of western Canada. It is a great trade emporium, and one of the chief wheat markets in the world. Population (1913) 200,000. — 10) Dakota; North D. is meant here; a prairie state of the United States. Its area is 70,195 sq. m. Pop. (1910) 580,000. Capital, Bismarck. — 12) Minnesota, State of North America to the east of the Dakotas; area, 84,682 sq. miles; pop. (1910) 2,075,000; capital St. Paul (215,000). — 19) Prince Albert, growing town in the Province of Saskatchewan; and at present most northern of any importance. Pop. (1913) ca. 13,000.

27. 24) Cascade Range — also Coast Range — is a term, usually applied to those mountains, which skirt the south-western part of British Columbia. They start just at the southern frontier at longitude 122° W. and continue along the Pacific coast to the head of Lynn Channel close to the northern frontier — a distance of 900 miles. — Sierra Nevada, a mountain range in California; originates in the N. of state, and trends S. — Sierra Madre, two mountain ranges in Mexico.

28. 20) *crumpling*, crushing together into creases. — 32) *Azoic*, a term applied to the earliest geological formations, as from them no fossils or other evidence of the existence of living creatures has been obtained.

29. 7) Baffin Land, lies between lat. 62° and 72° N., with Lancaster Sound on the N., Baffin Bay and Davis Strait on the E., the Gulf of Boothia and Fox

Channel on the W., and Hudson Bay on the S. Its area is over 200,000 sq. m.

30. 19) Dr G. M. Dawson (1849—1901), Canadian geologist and well known writer on Canadian geography and geology.

31. 6) Lake Agassiz formerly covered nearly the whole of Manitoba. — 14) Missouri Coteau runs roughly from the 104th degree of longitude gradually westward and northward to the 112th degree of longitude.

32. 34) the Gold Range, is about 60 miles in width. It runs north to the Frazer River, roughly parallel to the Rockies.

33. 28) Eastern Townships are the counties forming the S.W. portion of the Province of Quebec; they were originally settled by United Empire Loyalists, who adhered to Great Britain in the American Revolution, and form the English portion of the Province of Quebec. — 30) Lake Champlain, a large lake in the states of New York and Vermont, of which only the extreme northern end touches Canada in the Province of Quebec. Length 100 m., maximum breadth 15 m. — 34) Lake Simcoe, 283 square miles, the most western lake of any importance in the peninsula.

36. 12) *the winter port . . .*, it must be remembered that both Quebec and Montreal are inaccessible owing to ice on the St. Lawrence from the end of November till the middle of April. — 19) St. Margaret's *and* Mahone bays lie 20 and 30 m. respectively west of Halifax. — 24) The Shubenacadie issues from Grand Lake north of Halifax, and flows into Cobequid Bay. — 35) Cape St. George, is the N.E. cape of Nova Scotia (mainland).

37. 1) Antigonish and Pictou counties are the north eastern counties of the Nova Scotian mainland. — 17) Basin of Minas is a part of the eastern extension of the Bay of Fundy. This part of Nova Scotia is famous for its beauty and fertility of its soil. Longfellow has immortalized it as the opening scene of *Evangeline*.

38. 4) *the* Cabots, John Cabot (c. 1425—98) a Genoese, and his three sons Lewis, Sebastian and Sancius. They sighted the coast of Newfoundland on June 24, 1497 in a British vessel which had set out to take possessions in America on behalf of England. — 5) Port Royal, now Annapolis Royal, a small town (population under 1,500, 1913), the oldest settlement on the N. American continent north of Florida. — 7) Sir William Alexander, Earl of Selkirk, was a poet and statesman; he was granted Nova Scotia in 1621. — 19) Louisburg, now a village in the N.E. of Cape Breton Island (pop. 1913, 1000), once the strongest fortress on the N. Am. continent. The fortifications were begun by France in 1713, and cost no less than £ 2,000,000. Only a few stones remain to tell the tale of former glory. — Chignecto Bay, the north-western arm of the Bay of Fundy. — 27) Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth (1807—82), well known American poet of a somewhat sentimental character, but distinguished by great purity and simplicity of language. He was an accomplished linguist, and was professor of modern languages at Harvard university.

39. 7) Joseph Howe, a Canadian statesman; born in Halifax, Dec. 13, 1804. He was originally a printer. In 1828 he became editor of the *Nova Scotian:* in 1836 elected to parliament; in 1840 a member of the provincial cabinet, but resigned in 1854 to superintend the con-

struction of the first railroad in Nova Scotia. In 1863 he became premier of the province. He opposed the absorption of Nova Scotia by the Dominion at first, but afterwards obtained the best terms for his province, and accepted a place in the Dominion cabinet in 1869. In 1873 he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia. — 11) British North America Act, by which the various provinces of Canada were federally united into one Dominion under the Crown of Great Britain was dated 29th March 1867.

40. 3) Governor-General-in Council, i. e.: the G-G. and his council. — 21) Sydney, an important coal and mining town of Cape Breton Island, situated on N. E. corner of same. It is also an Atlantic port of growing importance. — Glace Bay to the N. of Sydney. — 25) Amherst near head of Cumberland Basin (Chignecto Bay), and borders of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. — 26) Truro, 60 m. north-east of Halifax, about 2 m. from head of Cobequid Bay. Educational centre. Pop. ca. 8,000. — 34) Pictou County, lies in the N. of Nova Scotia on Northumberland Strait opposite Prince Edward Island.

43. 2) Pictou, small town (pop. ca. 3,500) in Pictou County (*v. supra.* An. p. 40, l. 34).

44. 23) Treaty of Utrecht, this was the treaty of peace which ended the war of the Spanish Succession.

45. *Quit Rent,* a rent, the payment of which frees from service, etc.

46. 24) *fee simple,* a freehold estate or inheritance, absolute and unqualified.

47. 28) Bay Chaleur, or Chaleur Bay, is a deep bay dividing half of northern New Brunswick from the

Province of Quebec. It runs 160 miles inland, and is 38 miles wide at its mouth.

48. 9) De Monts, Sieur (Pierre du Guart), French navigator, b. 1560, d. 1611. After De Chastes the became director of the French Company in Canada. — 10) St. Croix River forms the south-western frontier line between New Brunswick and the State of Maine. — 21) St. John River, the largest river of N.B., 390 m. long (in Canada). — Mangerville, village on the St. John near Fredericton. — 24) Massachusetts, a N.E. state of U.S.A. Capital: Boston. It is the most densely populated state in the Union (ca. 350 to a sq. m.). Pop. (1910) 3,367,000. — 25) *the* American Revolution, was chiefly brought about by England's endeavour to tax her American colonies by imposing the so-called Stamp Act in 1765. The colonies met and drew up a 'Declaration of Rights and Grievances', in which they claimed the privilege of being taxed only by their own consent. This tax was repealed, but replaced by another in 1767, which was also restricted afterwards to tea only. In 1773 a body of 50 men boarded some ships in Boston harbour, and threw the tea overboard. The English blockaded the coast, and war broke out in 1775. In 1776 (July 4) the 'Declaration of Independence' was drawn up. Led by Washington, the Americans gained victory after victory against the English, and their hired German troops. The French also assisted the Americans. The last decisive blow was struck by the colonists when they forced Lord Cornwallis to surrender with his army at Yorktown on Oct. 19, 1781. The final treaty of peace was signed Sept. 3, 1783, and England lost her foothold in what are now the United States.

49. 1) Madawaska, a north-western county of New Brunswick. — 27) St. John, the largest town of N.B. Is an important harbour and winter-port (pop. 1911, 53,000).

50. 9) *lumberman*, woodcutter; woodchopper; man who works in woods, either cutting or hauling lumber = wood. — 11) *freshet,* the sudden flow in a river from rain or snow.

51. 15) *pivot* = the axle on which a wheel or body turns; *pivot province,* the most important province. — 30) Cape Diamond, is a high cliff to the S.W. of Quebec citadel and city.

52. 19) Lake Timiskaming is an expansion of the Ottawa River; area 117 sq. m.

53. 1) Saguenay, one of the chief tributaries of the St. Lawrence, and one of the most remarkable rivers on the American continent — in fact it is more like a fjord. Length 110 m. — 8) Gaspé Peninsula, is that part of the Province of Quebec which lies between Chaleur Bay and the St. Lawrence. It is an elevated plateau (ca. 1500 ft.) forming the N.E. terminus of the Appalachian system. The peninsula is thinly populated (ca. 20,000), the settlements being confined to the coast.

54. 31) Barren Grounds are the treeless, inhospitable wastes of Canada in the far north beyond the tree line; they attain their most southerly limit at lat. 57° in Labrador. On the Hudson's Bay "they begin at about 60° of lat.; and thence the vanishing point of the forests follows a line curving upwards to the mouth of the Mackenzie, where trees are found as high as 68°, or even higher, along the low, marshy banks of that river. From the Mackenzie the line curves slightly south-

ward till it reaches Behring's Sea in 65°. If we include the area of the Arctic islands, which form a large part of the Dominion, the area of these cheerless wastes exceeds a million and a half square miles" (E. B. Osborn).

56. 2) Frontenac, Louis de Buade, Comte de (1620—98), succeeded Courcelles as governor-general of Canada in 1672, holding the office until 1682, and again from 1689 to 1698. He was one of the greatest of all Frenchmen in Canada. — 3) Vaudreuil, the Marquis de V. was governor of Canada from 1755—60.

53. 1) Lake of the Woods, is 70 m. long, and 60 wide. The water area is given as 1500 square miles.

60. 8) Toronto, the capital of Ontario, situated on the western end of Lake Ontario, is an important lake port, and has a fine harbour. Pop. (1911) 425,400. — 26) Hamilton, the Birmingham of Canada, situated on Burlington Bay, the western extremity of Lake Ontario. Pop. (1911) 90,000. — London is in Middlesex County, on the River Thames, is a rapidly rising city of Ontario. Pop. 1911 (52,000). — 28) Berlin, the chief town of a district, mostly inhabited by Germans, lies 35 m. N.W. of Hamilton. Pop. (1911) 17,000.

62. 7) *manhood suffrage*, the right to vote granted to all male citizens of lawful age (21 in Great and Greater Britain) not disqualified by crime, insanity etc.

63. 19) Edmonton, the capital of Alberta, on the Saskatchewan River. Pop. (1911) 54,000. — Hebrides, or Western Islands, off the W. coast of Scotland. The islands are in general mountainous, rugged, and picturesque. — Lord Selkirk (1771—1820) was the first to attempt (1811) to colonize what is now Manitoba. The undertaking was however a failure owing to lack

of experience, and opposition of the North-West for trading Company.

64. 18) Minnesota lies to the west of Lake Superior; area 84,682 sq. m. Pop. (1910) 2,075,708. Capital St. Paul. — 19) North Dakota lies immediately south of Manitoba and Saskatchewan; area 70,837 sq. m.; pop. (1910) 577,056; capital Bismarck. — Montana lies west of North Dakota, and south of Alberta and Saskatchewan; area 146,977 sq. m.; pop. (1910) 376,053; capital Helena. — 25) *loam,* a soil consisting of clay mixed with sand and vegetable mould.

68. 9) *Brome grass,* a kind of coarse grass like *Fescue,* Ord. *Gramineæ.* — 11) *timothy,* after Timothy Hanson who brought it from Amer. to Eng. circa 1780; the Phleum *prâtense,* Ord. *Gramineæ.* — 12) *Alfalfa,* another name for lucerne *(Medicago sativa).*

69. 2) *veteran scrip,* documents entitling those who have served their country by land or sea, to receive a reward, either in the shape of money or a grant of land.

82. 2) Assiniboia was west of Manitoba and lay along the International boundary. — Saskatchewan was to the north. Both had the western boundaries on the present Alberta eastern boundary. — Athabasca was the northern half of what is now Saskatchewan and Alberta. — Alberta was the southern portion of the present province. — 23) Saskatoon (52 N. 107 W.) on S. Saskatchewan River. Population (1912) 28,000. — 24) the Qu'Appelle Valley is formed by the river of that name, which is a northern tributary of the S. Saskatchewan. — 30) Prince Albert on the N. Sask. Pop. (1912) 13,000.

83. 1) Reindeer Lake lies in Saskatchewan (57 N. 103 W.); area: 2,437 sq. m. — 19) Moose Jaw, town in south-central Saskatchewan. Pop. (1912) 25,000.

86. 9) Lord Lorne, John Douglas Sutherland, ninth Duke of Argyll (b. 1845), married in 1871, Princess Louise, daughter of Queen Victoria. From 1878—83 he was governor-general of Canada. — 21) Red River carts, are rough two-wheeled carts without springs. — 22) Calgary, important town in west of Alberta near Rockies; centre of ranching district; pop. (1912) 75,000.

89. 20) Selkirk, small town in Manitoba on Red River, at head of Lake Winnipeg navigation. Pop. (1913) 3,500. — *pilot*, the first engine going through. — 31) *mudsills*, the basis of stone or wood (or here: mud) on which a structure rests.

90. 8) Strait of Juan de Fuca 48 N. 124 W. separates Vancouver from the State of Washington. — 9) Washington, the most north-westerly state of the U. S. A. Area 69,127 sq. m. Pop. (1910) 1,141,990; capital Olympia. — Idaho lies east of Washington. Area 84,313 sq. m. Pop. (1910) 325,594; capital Boisé. — Montana, east of Idaho. Area 146,997 sq. m. Pop. (1910) 376,053. Capital Helena.

91. 15) Colorado, river of the W. United States. Length 1,080 m. Celebrated for its cañons. — 35) Cortez, Hernando (1485—1547), Spanish soldier and conqueror of Mexico.

92. 2) Sir Francis Drake (1540—96), English naval commander. Raided the Spanish American coasts, and became the terror of the Spanish navy and her

American coastal towns. He took an important part in fighting the Spanish Armada off Gravelines in 1588. — 6) Queen Elizabeth of England, daughter of Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn. She came to the throne in 1558, and died in 1603 at the age of 70 after having reigned 44 years. — 9) Behring, Vitus (1680—1741), explorer, born at Horsens, Jutland. He discovered (1728) that Asia was not joined to America. — 10) Captain James Cook (1728—79), great English seaman, discoverer, and circumnavigator. He was the first to circumnavigate New Zealand, and also discovered various islands in the Pacific. — Nootka Sound, on west central coast of Vancouver. — 14) Sandwich Islands, or Hawaii, an archipelago in Pacific, stretching N. W. to S. E. from 22° to 18½° N., and from 160° to 154½° W., 2,700 m. S. W. of San Francisco. Total area 6,450 sq. m. Capital Honolulu. — 32) Captain George Vancouver (1758—98), British navigator, accompanied Cook on his voyages in 1772—74 and 1776—79. He surveyed Vancouver Island.

95. 5) Yale and West Kootenay, are two southern administrative districts of British Columbia. — 34) *"bonanza"*, greatly prospering.

97. 8) *Runic inscriptions,* letters of the Northern (Norroene) alphabet, used in Scandinavia before the christian era. — 11) Prescott, William Hickling (1796—1859), American historian, author of *Conquest of Mexico (1843)* and *Conquest of Peru (1847).* — 16) Leif *the son of* Eric the Red (Leifr Eiriksson) (fl. 999—1000), Scandinavian explorer, of Icelandic family. He was the son of Eric the Red, the founder of the earliest Scandinavian settlements in Greenland.

98. 3) Cousin of Dieppe, the exact date of whose birth and death is not known, is supposed to have discovered America in 1488. — 17) Pope Alexander the Sixth's Bull (6th May, 1483), divided the Spanish possessions in America from the Portuguese. — 34) Brian Chabot, Philippe de (1480—1543), was governor of Burgundy, and Admiral of France (1526).

100. 2) William Kingsford (1819—98), Canadian historian, born in London; went to Canada and became a journalist, and then a surveyor. His *History of Canada* (10 vols. 1887—97) is monumental.

102. 11) Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye was signed in 1632. — 31) Oliver Cromwell (1599 to 1658), Lord Protector of England after the execution of Charles I. (Jan. 30, 1649), after which the Commonwealth was declared, with Cromwell as uncrowned king of England.

103. 4) William III. son of William, Prince of Orange and Mary, daughter of Charles I. He was born in 1650, ascended the throne of England in 1689, and died in 1702. — 18) Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748.

104. 31) Louisiana was French up to 1763, when it became Spanish. It included the whole of the basin of the Mississippi and its tributaries. The Spanish ceded Louisiana back to France in 1800, and the United States purchased it in 1803 from the French. The present state is only a fraction of the old country of Louisiana. It lies on both sides of the Mississippi at its mouth, and on its west banks in the north of the state.

105. 9) Micmac Indians, an eastern branch of the Algonquian family, who formed the dominant element

in Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island. New Brunswick, and adjacent parts. They number about 4,000.

107. 10) Hurons, an extinct branch of the Iroquois nation. — 12) the Richelieu flows due north from Lake Champlain into the St. Lawrence.

108. 22) Three Rivers lies half way between Montreal and Quebec on the north shore of the St. Lawrence. Pop. (1913) 15,000.

111. 6) The Chevalier de Callières was governor of Canada from 1699–1703. — 8) Duluth, city and important port of Minnesota, at south-western end of Lake Superior. Pop. ca. 60,000. — 14) Massachusetts, a N.E. state of U.S.A. Area 8,266 sq. m. Pop. (1910) 3,366,416. Capital, Boston (pop. ca. 700,000: 1913). — William Phipps (1651—1695), colonial governor of Massachusetts. He was a shepherd until he was eighteen, and then a ship's carpenter. In 1687 found a wrecked Spanish vessel from which he recovered £ 300,000. He became governor in 1692. — 27) Point de Monts is a cape some 250 miles. N.E. of Quebec. It projects far into the St. Lawrence, which at this point joins the gulf.

112. 20) La Salle, Sieur de, was born at Rouen in 1643. He was assassinated by some of his followers on the 18th March 1687 on his return journey from the Mississippi which he discovered.

113. 13) General Braddock, Edward (1695 to 1755) was born in Pertshire, Scotland. — 15) Baron Dieskau, Karl Wilhelm von, Prussian General, born 1701 in Dieskau, died 14 Aug. 1777 in Berlin. Was an expert in artillery matters.

114. 34) Fennimore Cooper (1789—1851), American novelist, born at Burlington, New Jersey. Entered the navy as a young man; left in 1811. Spent several years in Paris. He died at Cooperstown near the scenes of many of his novels.

115. 11) William Pitt (1759—1806), one of the greatest of British statesmen; was the second son of Lord Chatham. In 1782 he became Chancellor of the Exchequer, being only twenty-three. In the same year he became Prime Minister. From 1784 on, with but a brief interval, he ruled the nation for twenty years. His title to enduring fame rests on his war policy, and his work in the sphere of economics. — 15) Duke of Newcastle (Thomas Pelham Holles, 1693—1768), was Prime Minister from 1754—62.

116. 5) General Amherst (1717—97), British field-marshal; chosen by Pitt to command the army for the conquest of French N. America. Montreal having fallen, Amherst reached the climax of his career by his selection as governor-general of British N. America (1760). — Admiral Boscawen, Sir Edward (1711 to 1761), British admiral. Having rendered useful service in India, he became a lord of the Admiralty in 1751. He effected the reduction of Louisburg, and in the following year chased and destroyed a French squadron under De la Clue off Lagos.

117. 2) Plains of Abraham, are part of an elevated plateau to the S.W. of Quebec. — 9) Nelson, Horatio, Lord (1758—1805), the greatest of British admirals. Entered the navy in 1770. During the various engagements he took part in, he was often severely wounded, losing his right eye, and his right arm. Was

killed on October 21, 1805 at the Battle of Trafalgar at the moment of his victory over the French fleet. This battle saved England, and destroyed the French fleet. — 22) Levis (François-Gaston, duc de, 1720—1787). Went to Canada in 1756, succeeded Moncalm as commander-in-chief of Canada, and defended that colony in a most heroic manner.

118. 30) Haldimand, Sir Frederick (1718 to 1791), British general and administrator, was born in Switzerland, of Huguenot descent. After serving in the armies of Sardinia, Russia, and Holland, he entered British service in 1754. During the Seven Years' war he served in America. He succeeded Sir Guy Carleton as governor-general of Canada in 1778.

119. 5) *Magna Charta.* The Great Charter, called by Hallam the 'keystone of English liberty', was granted by King John in the year 1215. In addition to the preamble, the Charter contains 63 clauses, and is partly remedial and partly declaratory of the principal grounds of the fundamental laws of England. Its principal provisions are: — (I) A declaration that the Church of England is free. (II) Feudal obligations are defined and limited. (III) Law courts are to be held at fixed places, assize courts are established, and earls and barons are to be tried by their peers. (IV) No extraordinary taxation without consent. (V) No banishment or imprisonment save by judgement of peers and the law of the land. (VI) No denial, sale, or delay of justice. (VII) One standard of weights and measures.

120. 4) Cornwallis, Charles, First Marquis (1738—1805). After being surrounded at Yorktown and compelled to surrender, he returned to England, and was

appointed (1786) as governor-general of India. In 1798 he became viceroy of Ireland; at the year of his death he was again governor-general of India. — 14) St. Croix River form she southern part of the boundary line between New Brunswick and Maine.

122. 18) *war between Great Britain* . . . primarily was caused by the English taking American sailors from a ship (the *Chesapeake*) while in American waters; claiming that they were British subjects and could be impressed. America further claimed that the English were inciting the Indians against the Americans in the north-west. Accordingly, the president declared war upon Great Britain. — 24) Sir Isaac Brock, an English soldier, born Oct. 6, 1769; killed in the battle of Queenstown, Oct. 13, 1812. As a member of the British army he served in various parts of the world. In 1810 he was sent to Upper-Canada, having been appointed lieutenant-general. He prepared for war with the United States, advanced to Detroit and compelled the surrender of the place. From here he went to the Niagara frontier, where the battle was fought with the Americans, in which he was killed.

123. 30) President Madison, James (1751 to 1836), fourth president of the United States. His great work was done during and after the war of independence, in working out the union of state and federal law. He was president from 1809—1817.

125. 13) Papineau, Louis Joseph (1789—1871), Canadian politician and rebel, was born in Montreal, and became Radical leader of the Legislative Assembly, and in 1815 Speaker — a post he held till 1837. He opposed the proposal to unite the two Canadas. When the rebellion

broke out, a warrant for high treason was issued for his arrest; but he escaped to Paris, when, having been pardoned, he returned to Canada in 1847. — 25) Mackenzie, William Lyon (1795—1861), leader of the Canadian rebels. Was born at Dundee, and emigrated to Canada in 1820. As a journalist he took extreme views on the popular side in the struggle for reform. In 1828 he was elected to the legislature. During the insurrection in Upper Canada he established a provisional government, but eventually retired to the United States. — 29) Lord Durham, George Lambton (Earl), English statesman (1792—1840). His chief title to fame is the report which he drew up regarding the condition of Canada, whither he was sent as governor-general. The report has been called the Charter of Colonial Liberty.

LEADING DATES IN CANADIAN HISTORY.

Champlain's first voyage to North America . .	1603
Founding of Port Royal	1605
Quebec founded by Champlain	1608
Hudson discovers the Hudson River	1609
Hudson discovers Hudson Bay	1610
Port Royal destroyed by Argall	1613
Grant of Acadia to Sir W. Alexander	1621
Company of the One Hundred Associates incorporated	1627
Quebec taken from the French by Kirke . . .	1629
Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye. Canada restored to France	1632
Death of Champlain	1635
Founding of Montreal.	1642
Acadia taken by the English	1645
Destruction of the Huron Missions	1648 – 50

Company of One Hundred Associates dissolved and Canada taken over by the French Crown 1663
New York taken by Great Britain 1664
Expedition of Tracy and Courcelles against the Five Nations. 1666
La Salle comes to Canada 1666
Treaty of Breda. Acadia restored to the French . 1667
La Salle supposed to have discovered the Ohio 1669—71
Incorporation of the Hudson Bay Company . . 1670
Count Frontenac's first government . . . . 1672—82
Founding of Fort Frontenac 1673
Joliet and Marquette reach the Mississippi from Lake Michigan 1673
Treaty of Westminster. New York finally ceded to Great Britain 1674
La Salle descends the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico 1682
La Salle's expedition to Texas . . . . . 1684—85
Treaty of Whitehall 1686
Forts in Hudson Bay raided by Iberville . . . 1686
Death of La Salle 1687
Massacre of Lachine 1689
Count Frontenac's second government . . . 1689—98
Port Royal taken by Phipps 1690
Phipps' expedition against Quebec 1690
Peace of Ryswick 1697
First colonization of Louisiana by Iberville . . 1699
Founding of Detroit 1701
Callières' Treaty with the Five Nation Indians . . 1701
Five Nation Indians acknowledge supremacy of Great Britain. 1701
Port Royal taken by Nicholson 1710
Expedition of Walker and Hill against Quebec . 1711
Peace of Utrecht. Hudson Bay and Acadia ceded to Great Britain 1713
English fort built at Oswego 1727
Western discoveries by the Verendryes . . . 1731—43

First siege and capture of Louisburg 1745
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle 1748
Halifax founded 1749
Fort Duquesne built by the French 1754
Expulsion of the Acadians 1755
The *Alcide* and *Lys* taken by Boscawen . . . 1755
Braddock, defeated on the Monogahela 1755
Johnson's victory over Dieskau at Lake George . 1755
Oswego taken by Montcalm 1756
William Shirley recalled 1756
Abortive attempt against Louisburg by Loudoun and Holborne 1757
Fort William Henry taken by Montcalm . . . 1757
Pitt comes into power 1757
Louisbourg taken by Amherst and Wolfe . . . 1758
Abercromby defeated at Ticonderoga and Lord Howe killed 1758
Fort Frontenac taken by Bradstreet 1758
Fort Duquesne taken by Forbes 1758
Fort Niagara taken by Johnson 1759
Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken by Amherst 1759
Battle of Quebec. Deaths of Wolfe and Montcalm. Quebec surrendered to the English 1759
Surrender of Montreal and final conquest of Canada 1760
Resignation of Pitt. Bute comes into power . . 1761
War between Great Britain and Spain 1762
Peace of Paris. Canada ceded to Great Britain . 1763
Proclamation of October 10. 1763
Quebec Act 1774
Invasion of Canada by Americans. Siege of Quebec . . . . . 1775—76
Treaty of Versailles 1783
United Empire Loyalists settle in Nova Scotia and Upper Canada 1784
New Brunswick carved out of Nova Scotia . . 1784
Constitutional Act 1791

Jay's Treaty 1794
Restoration of Western Posts 1796
First French newspaper 1806
War with United States; battle of Queenstown . 1812
Battles of Lake Erie, Chateauguay and Chrystler's Farm 1813
Battle of Lundy's Lane 1814
Treaty of Ghent. 1814
Acceptance by British Government of undertaking by Lower Canadian assembly to provide full payment of supplies 1818
Opening of Lachine Canal 1825
House of Commons Committee on Canada . . 1828
Opening of Welland Canal 1829
Foundation of Upper Canada College, Toronto . 1830
Opening of Rideau Canal 1832
Passing of '92 Resolutions' 1834
Insurrection in Canada 1837
Lord Durham's Mission 1838
Publication of Lord Durham's Report 1839
First Canadian Railway 1839
Act of Union 1840
Establishment of regular ocean steamship service between Canada and Great Britain 1840
Local government established in Upper Canada . 1841
Ashburton Boundary Treaty. 1842
Responsible government recognized 1842
Opening of McGill University, Montreal, and of King's College Toronto 1843
Local government established in Lower Canada . 1845
Settlement of Oregon Boundary Question . . . 1846
Responsible government established in Maritime Provinces 1848
Local government in Upper Canada made completely representative 1849
University of Toronto established 1849
Secularization of Clergy Reserves and abolition of Feudal Tenures 1854

Reciprocity Treaty with United States	1854
Legislative Council made elective	1856
Selection of Ottawa as seat of government	1858
Quebec Conference	1864
First meeting of Canadian parliament at Ottawa	1866
Expiration of Reciprocity Treaty	1866
British North America Act (confederation of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick)	1867
Negotiations with regard to purchase of Hudson's Bay Territories. Red River Insurrection	1869
Manitoba becomes a province of the Dominion	1870
Treaty of Washington	1871
British Columbia enters the Dominion	1871
Price Edward Island enters the Dominion	1873
Intercolonial Railway opened	1876
Triumph of 'National' Policy	1878
North-West Rebellion	1885
Canadian Pacific Railway opened for general traffic	1886
Imperial Conference at Ottawa	1894
Preferential treatment accorded to British goods by Canadian Parliament	1897
Settlement of Alaska Boundary Question	1903
Provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta made members of Dominion	1905
Reciprocity agreement with United States rejected	1911
Extension of Quebec, Ontario and Manitoba boundaries	1912

(From Sir C. P. Lucas' *History of Canada.*)

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